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THE CIFT OF

CHARLES HALL GRANDGENT

CLASS OF 1883

PROFESSOR OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES





beath's Modern Language Series

AN OUTLINE

OF THE

PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY

OF

OLD PROVENÇAL

BY

C. H. GRANDGENT

PROFESSOR OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES IN HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Revised Edition

BOSTON, U. S. A.

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1909

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PREFACE.

THIS book, which is intended as a guide to students of Romance Philology, represents the result of desultory labors extending through a period of twenty years. introduction to the scientific pursuit of Provençal linguistics was a course given by Paul Meyer at the École des Chartes in the winter of 1884-85. Since then I have been collecting material both from my own examination of texts and from the works of those philologists who have dealt with the sub-Besides the large Grammars of the Romance Languages by Diez and by Meyer-Lübke, I have utilized H. Suchier's Die französische und provenzalische Sprache (in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, I, 561), the Introduzione grammaticale in V. Crescini's Manualetto provenzale, the Abriss der Formenlehre in C. Appel's Provenzalische Chrestomathie, and many special treatises to which reference will be made in the appropriate places. Conscious of many imperfections in my work, I shall be grateful for corrections.

I have confined myself to the old literary language, believing that to be of the greatest importance to a student of Romance Philology or of Comparative Literature, and fearing lest an enumeration of modern forms, in addition to the ancient, might prove too bewildering. I should add that neither my own knowledge nor the material at my disposal is adequate to a satisfactory presentation of the living idioms

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iv Preface.

of southern France. These dialects have, however, been investigated for the light they throw on the geographical distribution of phonetic variations; my chief source of information has been F. Mistral's monumental *Dictionnaire provençal-français*. Catalan and Franco-Provençal have been considered only incidentally. I have not dealt with word-formation, because one of my students is preparing a treatise on that subject. *

Readers desiring a brief description of Provençal literature are referred to H. Suchier and A. Birch-Hirschfeld, Geschichte der französischen Literatur, pp. 56-96; A. Stimming, in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, II, ii, pp. 1-69; and A. Restori, Letteratura provenzale. For a more extended account of the poets they should consult Die Poesie der Troubadours and the Leben und Werke der Troubadours by F. Diez; and The Troubadours at Home by J. H. Smith. The poetic ideals are discussed by G. Paris in Romania, XII, pp. 516-34; and with great fulness by L. F. Mott in The System of Courtly Love. The beginnings of the literature are treated by A. Jeanroy in his Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge, reviewed by G. Paris in a series of important articles in the Journal des Savants (November and December, 1891, and March and July, 1892) reprinted separately in 1892 under the same title as Jeanroy's book. Contributions by A. Restori to several volumes of the Rivista musicale italiana deal with Provençal music; some tunes in modern notation are to be found in J. H. Smith's Troubadours at Home, and in the Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen, CX (New Series X), 110 (E. Bohn). Aside from the editions of individual poets, the best collections of verses are those of C. Appel, Provenzalische Chrestomathie; V. Crescini, Manualetto provenzale; and K. Bartsch, Chresto-

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¹ There should now be added: J. B. Beck, Die Melodien der Troubadours, 1908.

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PREFACE.

mathie provençale. Earlier and larger anthologies are M. Raynouard's Choix des poésies originales des troubadours, and C. A. F. Mahn's Werke der Troubadours and Gedichte der Troubadours. The only dictionary of importance for the old language is the Lexique roman (six volumes) of M. Raynouard, augmented by the Supplement-Wörterbuch of E. Levy and the supplement of E. Levy francis (now appearing in instalments). The poetic language of the present day can be studied to advantage in E. Koschwitz's Grammaire historique de la langue des Félibres.

C. H. GRANDGENT.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., NOVEMBER, 1904.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND TECHNICAL TERMS.

Abl.: ablative.
Acc.: accusative.
Cl.L.: Classic Latin.
Cond.: conditional.
Cons.: consonant.

Einf.: W. Meyer-Lübke, Einführung in das Studium der romanischen Sprachwissenschaft, 1901.

F.: feminine.
Fr.: French.

Free (of vowels): not in position.

Fut.: future.

Gram.: W. Meyer-Lübke, Grammaire des langues romanes, 3 vols., 1890-1900.

Grundriss: G. Gröber, Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, 2 vols., 1888-1902.

Imp.: imperfect.

Imper.: imperative.

Intertonic (of vowels): following the secondary and preceding the primary accent.

Intervocalic (of consonants): standing between two vowels.

It.: Italian.

Körting: G. Körting, Lateinischromanisches Wörterbuch, 2d ed., 1901.

Lat.: Latin.

Levy: E. Levy, Provenzalisches Supplement-Wörterbuch, 1894-.

Ltblt.: Literaturblatt für germanische und romanische Philologie, monthly, Leipzig.

M.: masculine.
Nom.: nominative.
Obj.: objective (case).
Part.: participle.

Perf.: perfect.
Pers.: person.

Phon.: P. Marchot, Petite phonétique du français prélittéraire, 1901.

P1.: plural. Pr.: Provençal. Pres.: present. Pret.: preterit.

Raynouard: M. Raynouard, Lexique roman, 6 vols., 1836-44.

Rom.: Romania, quarterly, Paris. Sg.: singular.

V.L.: Vulgar Latin.

Voc.: H. Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, 3 vols., 1866-68.

Voiced (of consonants): sonant, pronounced with vibration of the glottis.

Voiceless (of consonants): surd, pronounced without glottal vibration.

Vow.: vowel.

Zs.: Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie, 4 to 6 nos. a year, Halle.

SIGNS AND PHONETIC SYMBOLS.

- N. B.—Phonetic characters not entered in this list are to be pronounced as in Italian. Whenever it is essential to distinguish spelling from pronunciation, *italic* type is used for the former, Roman for the latter.
 - (under a vowel): close quality.

 (under a vowel): open quality.
 - (over a vowel): long quantity.
 - (over a vowel): short quantity.
 - (under a letter): semivowel, not
 - syllabic.
 - ' (over a letter): stress.
- a: French & in pate.
- a: French a in patte.
- β : bilabial v, as in Spanish.
- c: see k.
- c': palatal k, as in English key.
- ð: English th in this.
- e: French é in thé.
- ę: French ê in fête.
- g: English g in go.
- g': palatal g, as in English geese.
- h: English h in hat.
- i: French i in si.
- į: English i in pit.
- k: English k in maker.
- k': see c'.
- l': palatal l, as in Italian figlio.

- ' (after a consonant): palatal pronunciation. [found.
- * (before a word): conjectural, not
- (between words or letters): derivation, the source standing at the open end.
- +: followed by.
- n': palatal n, as in Italian ogni.
- n: English ng in sing.
- o: German ō, as in sohn.
- o: German ö, as in sonne.
- r': palatal r.
- š: English sh in ship.
- p: English th in thin.
- u: German ū, as in gut.
- u: German ŭ, as in butter.
- ü: French u in pur.
- w: English w in woo.
- χ : German ch in ach.
- y: English y in ye.
- z: English z in crazy.
- ž: French j in jour.

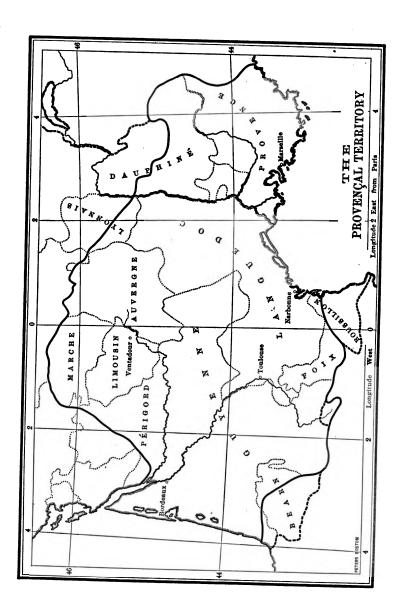


TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Introduction	N								_		_									Pages 1–9
PhonoLogy				Ī	٠	Ť	٠	٠	Ī	Ť	·	Ť	•	·	•	Ī	٠	,	•	10-84
Accent	-	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•
	-	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	11-13
Vowels		•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	13–36
Quant	•		•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	٠	•	•	•	13–14
Accent	ed	V	ow	els	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	٠	٠	•	14-24
. a	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	14-15
ę	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	15–17
ę	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	17-20
į			•	•	•	•	•			•							•			20
· o				•		•	٠.	•		•	•			•	•					20-21
. δ																				21-23
ų													٠.							23-24
au																				24
Unacc	en	ted	v	ow	els															24-36
Init	ial	S	vll	abl	е															25-27
Inte						le												•		27-29
Pen													•	•		Ĭ.	Ĭ.	Ĭ.	·	29-32
Fina								٠	٠	·	٠	:	٠	•	٠	•	•	٠	•	32-36
Consona				D.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Lati			ne.	·			•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	37-84
Gen							•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	37-40
							ıts.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	40–41
Gree		_				LS.	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	41-42
Initial						•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	42-44
Sing			•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	43-44
Gro			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	44
Media			50	nar	ets	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	45-78
Sing	le																			47-55

														•		PAGES
Groups				•		•			•			•		•	•	55- 78
Double	Consc	onan	ts	•	•		•					•	•			56- 57
Groups	Endi	ng i	n I													57- 58
Groups	Endi	ing i	n K	? .												58- 61
Groups	Endi	ing i	n I	V												61- 62
Groups	Endi	ing i	n I	٠.												63- 69
Groups	Begin	nnin	g u	ith	L,	M,	N	R	, 0	r S						69- 74
Miscell	aneou	s Gi	างนา	55												74- 78
Final Conso	nants															78- 8ı
Single.																78– 8ı
Groups																81
Sporadic Ch	iange															81- 84
Insertion																81- 82
Metathes	is .															82- 83
Dissimila	tion															83- 84
MORPHOLOGY .																85-146
Declension .															•	85-113
Nouns .														Ċ		85- 94
First Dec	lensio	on .														90
Second D	eclen	sion														90- 91
Third De	clensi	ion .														91- 94
Adjectives																95- 99
Comparis	on .															96- 97
Numerals	з.															98-99
Pronouns as	nd Pr	onon	nin	al 2	4 dje	ecti	ves									99-113
Articles																100-101
Personal	Prono	ouns														101-105
Possessiv	es .															105-107
Demonstr	rative	s.														107-109
Interroga	tives	and	Re	lati	ves	٠.										109-110
Indefinite	Pron	oun	s a	nd .	Adj	ect	ive	8								110-113
Conjugation																114-146
The Four C																114-115
Fundamenta	zl Cha	ınge.	s in	In	flec	tios	z									116-118
Infinitive, F																118-119
Past Partice	iple.							•			•					110-121
Future and	New	Con	diti	ona	Z											121-123
Future E	nding	s.														I22-I22

		T	AB	LE	o	F	Co	ľN	Œ	TS	5.						x
																	PAGE
Condition	onal	Endi	ngs	3		•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	123
Present .						•							•				123-132
Double	Sten	ıs .	•								•						125-126
Paculian	For	ms															127-130
Persona	l En	ding	в.								•						130-132
Imperfect	India	ativ									,						132-133
Preterit, C	ld C	ondi	ion	al,	an	ıd.	Im ₂	berj	fec	t S	ubj	un	tiv	e			133-146
Preterit							•										133-144
																	135-138
																	138-144
Old Cor	ditio	onal															144-14
Imperfe	ct S	ıbju	acti	ve													145-146
_		•															

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AN OUTLINE OF THE PHONOLOGY AND MOR-PHOLOGY OF OLD PROVENÇAL.

I. INTRODUCTION.

- 1. The language here studied is, in the main, that used by the poets of Southern France during the 12th and 13th centuries. The few works that we have earlier than the 12th century must, of course, be utilized for such information as they afford concerning the process of linguistic change; and lacking words or forms must occasionally be sought in writings later than the 13th. Prose literature, moreover, should not be neglected, as it greatly enlarges our vocabulary and throws much light on local divergences. The modern dialects need be cited only to determine the geographical distribution of variations.
- 2. The extent of the Provençal territory is sufficiently indicated by the map on p. viii. The upper black line separates Provençal on the northwest and north from French, on the northeast from Franco-Provençal; on the east are the Gallo-Italic dialects. The lower black line divides Provençal on the southwest from Basque, on the south from Spanish, on the southeast from Catalan. The boundary line between French and Provençal must be determined somewhat arbitrarily, as there is no distinct natural division; the several linguistic characteristics of each idiom do not end at the

same point, and thus one language gradually shades into the other. The line shown on the map is based on the development of free accented Latin a, which remains a in Provençal, but is changed to e in French. The limits of other phonetic phenomena may be found in Suchier's maps at the back of Vol. I of Gröber's Grundriss. There may be seen also a large map showing the place of Provençal among the Romance languages. Consult, furthermore, P. Meyer in Romania, XXIV, 529. Suches and at and day here Suches languages.

- 3. The Spanish and Gallo-Italic frontiers are more clearly defined, and Basque is entirely distinct. Franco-Provençal and Catalan, on the other hand, are closely related to Provençal and not always easy to divide from it. Catalan, in fact, is often classed as a Provençal dialect; but it is sufficiently different to be studied separately. Franco-Provençal, rated by some philologists as an independent language, has certain characteristics of Provençal and certain features of French, but more of the latter; in some respects it is at variance with both. The Gascon, or southwest, dialects of Provençal differ in many ways from any of the others and present not a few similarities to Spanish²; they will, however, be included in our study.
- 4. The Provençal domain embraces, then, the following old provinces: Provence, Languedoc, Foix, part of Béarn, Gascony, Guyenne, Limousin, most of Marche, Auvergne, the southwestern half of Lyonnais and the southern half of Dauphiné. The native speech in this region varies considerably from place to place, and the local dialects are, for convenience, roughly grouped under the names of the provinces; it should be remembered, however, that the political

¹ See B. Schädel in Rom., XXXVII, 140.

² See E. Bourciez, les Mots espagnols comparés aux mots gascons.

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and the linguistic boundaries rarely coincide. For some of the principal dialect differences, see §§ 8 and 10-13.

- 5. The language of the poets was sometimes called *lemosi*; and, in fact, the foundation of their literary idiom is the speech of the province of Limousin and the adjacent territory on the north, west, and southwest.¹ The supremacy of this dialect group is apparently due to the fact that it was generally used for composition earlier than any of the others: popular song, in all probability, had its home in the borderland of Marche²; religious literature in the vulgar tongue developed in the monasteries of this region; the artistic lyric was cultivated, we know, at the court of Ventadour, and it must have found favor at others. Furthermore, many of the leading troubadours belonged by birth or residence to the Limousin district.
- 6. The troubadours' verses, as we have them, seldom represent any one dialect in its purity. The poet himself was doubtless influenced both by literary tradition and by his particular local usage, as well as by considerations of rhyme and metre. Moreover, his work, before reaching us, passed through the hands of various intermediaries, who left upon it traces of their own pronunciation. It should be said, also, that the Limousin was not a single dialect, but a group of more or less divergent types of speech. For these reasons we must not expect to find in Provençal a uniform linguistic standard.
- 7. Neither was there a generally accepted system of orthography. When the vulgar tongue was first written, the

¹ See C. Chabaneau, la Langue et la littérature du Limousin, in the Revue des langues romanes, XXXV, 379.

² See G. Paris, Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge.

Roman letters were used with approximately the same values that they had in Latin, as it was then pronounced. As the Provençal sounds changed, there was a conflict between the spellings first established and new notations based on contemporary speech. Furthermore, many Provençal vowels and consonants had no equivalents in Latin; for these we find a great variety of representations. The signs are very often ambiguous: for instance, c before e or i (as in cen, cinc) generally stands in the first texts for ts, in the more recent ones for s, the pronunciation having changed; s between vowels in early times usually means dz (plazer), but later z (roza); i between vowels (maiór) indicates either y or dž (English i), according to the dialect; a g may signify "hard" g (gerra), dž ("soft" g: ges), or tš (English ch: mieg).1 It is probable that for a couple of centuries diphthongs were oftenest written as simple vowels.

8. Some features of the mediæval pronunciation are still obscure. The close o was transformed, either during or soon after the literary epoch, into u (the sound of French ou); hence, when we meet in a late text such a word as flor, we cannot be certain whether it is to be sounded flor or flur. We do not know at what time Latin ū in southern France took the sound \ddot{u} (French u): some suppose that it was during or shortly before the literary period; if this be true, the letter u (as in tu, mur) may represent in some texts u, in others ü. In diphthongs and triphthongs whose first element is written u (cuer, fuolha, nueu, buou), this letter came to be pronounced in most of the dialects like French u in huit, while in others it retained the sound of French ou in oui; we cannot tell exactly when or where, in ancient times, this development occurred. In the diphthongs ue, uo (luec, fuoc), opinions disagree as to which vowel originally bore the

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stress; subsequent changes seem to indicate that in the 12th and 13th centuries the practice varied in the different dialects. Old Provençal must have had in some words a peculiar type of r, which was sufficiently palatal in its articulation to call for an i-glide before it (esclairar); we do not know precisely how it was formed; in most regions it probably was assimilated to the more usual r as early as the 12th century. The \check{s} and \check{z} (palatal s and z) apparently ranged, in the several dialects, between the sounds of French ch and \check{j} on the one hand, and those of German ch (in ich) and \check{j} (in ja) on the other; the former types were largely assimilated, doubtless by the 13th century, to \check{s} and \check{z} (pois, maiso), the latter were not (poih, maio).

9. The following table comprises the Old Provençal sounds with their usual spellings, the latter being arranged, as nearly as may be, in the order of their frequency. Diphthongs and triphthongs are included in the vowel list, compound consonants in the consonant table. For an explanation of the phonetic symbols, see p. vii. The variant pronunciations are discussed in § 8.

VOWELS.

sound.	SPELLINGS.		EXAMPLES.
a	a	pan	
ş	a	car	
ai	ai, ay	paire, cays	•
au	au	autre	
ę	•	pena	
	6	cel	
ę ęi	ei, ey	vei, veyre	
ęi	ei, ey	seis, teysser	
ęu	eu	beure	
ęu	eu	breu	
į	i, y	amic, ydola	

٨

sound.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
ię	ie, e	quier, velh
ięi	iei, iey, ei	ieis, lieys, leit
ięu	ieu, eu	mieu, deus
iu	iu	estiu
o (or n)	o, u	corre, sun
ç	0	cors
ọi	oi, oy	conoisser, oyre
çi '	oi, oy	pois, poyssán
ọu	014	dous
ọu	014	mou
u: see ọ, ü		
ü (or ụ?)	u	mut
uę, üę	ue, 0?	cuec, olh?
uçi, ü çi	uei, uey, oi l	cueissa, pueyssas, oit?
uęu, üęu	ueu, ou?	nueu, bou?
üi	ui, uy	cuit, duy
uọ, üọ	110, 0	gruoc, folha
uọi, üọi	uoi, oi	puoi, noit
uou, üou	uou, ou	pluou, ou

CONSONANTS.

SOUND.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
ь	b, bb	bel, abbat
d	d	don
dz	s, c	plazer, dicén
dž	i, g, tg, gg, ti, tgi, ih	ioc, gen, paratge, viagge, coratie, lotgiar, * puihar
<i>*</i>	ď	veder
f	f, ph	fer, phisica
g	8,84	gras, guan, guerra
h (Gascon)	h, f?	ham, fe?1
k	c, qu, k, g j	cais, quar, quer, ki, longs ²
1	<i>I, II</i>	leu, bellesa

¹ This h (coming from f) is peculiar to Gascon; the other dialects have no h.

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 $^{^{2}}$ G, b, d are sounded k, p, t only at the end of a word or before a final s.

sound.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
ľ	lh, ill, ilh, ll, l, il, yl, yll, li	fuelha, meillor, failha, vellar, viel, voil, fiyl, fayllentia, filia
m	n, mm	mes, commanda
n	n, nn	nas, annat
n'	nh, gn, inh, ign, ing, innh, ingn, ngn, nn, n, in, ng, ynh, ni, ny, nyh	cenher, plagner, poinh, seignor, soing, poinnher, fraingner, ongnimen, vinna, franén, soin, sengor, poynh, lenia, senyoria, senyhor
ŋ	n	lonc
P	p, pp, b	prop, apparer, obs1
r	r	rire
r'	r	cuer
rr	rr	terra ²
8	s, ss, c, ç, x	sap, fassa, cenat, ça, locx
š	ss, s, sh, h, hs	faissa, cais, pueysh, Foih, faihs
t	t, tt, d	tot, attenir, nud ¹
ts	c, x, tx, f, gx, cx, ti	cel, faz, parlatz, ço, fagz, czo, fayllen- tia ²
tš	ch, g, ich, ig, h, gx	chan, plag, ueich, faig, lah, gaugu 4
¥	\boldsymbol{u} (printed \boldsymbol{v})	ven
y	i, y	gabia, preyar
z	s, z, ç	pausa, rosa, riçia (< ridēbat)
ž	s, z, i	raso, poizo, maio

10. The Gascon group presents certain striking divergences from the other dialects: (1) it shows a b corresponding to Provençal v, as in $be = ve < v\check{e}nit$, abetz = avetz < habitis; (2) it substitutes r for l between vowels, as in $bera = bela < b\check{e}lla$; (3) it changes initial f to h, as in he = fe < fidem. Other Gascon peculiarities are less ancient, less general, or less important.

¹ G, b, d are sounded k, p, t only at the end of a word or before a final s.

³ Rr is generally distinguished from r, but there are a few examples of their confusion in rhyme.

^{*} Ts is usually written c at the beginning of a word, s or ts at the end.

⁴ G has the sound of ts only at the end of a word or combined with final s.

- 11. Some distinctions may be pointed out between the speech of the north and that of the south:—
- (1) Latin ca and ga, either at the beginning of a word or after a consonant, became respectively tša and dža in the northern dialects¹, and remained unchanged in the southern: canto > chan can, lŏnga > lonia longa.
- (2) Latin ct and gd became it and id in most of the north and in the southwest¹, tš and dž in most of the south and in the northwest²: factum > fait fach, frig(i)da > freida freia. Not became int, nt, n', ntš in different regions: sanctum > saint sant sanch sanch. Cs (Latin x) had various local developments—is, itš, tš—somewhat similar to those of ct: exīre > eissir eichir ichir.
- (3) Latin d between vowels disappeared in some spots in the north and northeast¹, and became z nearly everywhere else: audīre > auir auzir.
- (4) Latin ll became l' in some parts of the south², and usually l in other regions: bělla bela.
- (5) Provençal final ns remains in the southeast and east, and is elsewhere generally reduced to s: $b\check{o}nus > bons$ bos. Provençal final n also falls in a large region, but its history is more intricate; the poets use indifferently forms with and without n: $b\check{e}ne > ben$ be.
- 12. Several Latin consonants, when combined with a following e or i, give results that are widely different in various localities, but the geographical distribution of the respective forms is complicated and not always clear: pŏdium>puech poi; basiare>baisar basar baiar baiar; bassiare>baissar baichar bachar; potionem>poizon pozon poio. The same thing



¹Cf. French.

³ Cf. Spanish.

may be said of intervocalic y (Latin j): major>mager maier. Also of intervocalic c, sc, g, ng, followed by e or i: placere>plazer plazer plazer, nascere>naisser nascer naicher nacher, legem>lei leg, ungere>onher onger.

- 13. In the development of unstressed vowels there are very numerous local variations, which will be discussed later. Even among accented vowels there are some divergences:—
- (1) Provençal a, e, o before nasals become a, e, o in some dialects, especially in those belonging to or bordering on the Limousin group: canem> can can, věnit> ven ven, bŏnum> bon bon. The poets nearly always use the forms with close vowels.
- (2) The breaking of e, o, under certain conditions, into diphthongs is not common to the whole territory, and the resulting forms show local differences: meum>meu mieu, focum>foc fuoc fuec fuec fuec. Breaking is least common in the southwest.

For Catalan verves, see P. Fabra in Revie Hispanique, XV (1906), 9; P. Roberth, La diphthongaison en catalan in Rom. XLVII, 532

C. Brund, has premiers execution de l'emploi du provincat dons les charles, in Rom. XXVIII, 335: murture of Row, who in hat. In end 100, doc. ill in Provincial to the 120.

II. PHONOLOGY. '

- 14. Inasmuch as Provençal, like the other Romance languages, grew out of the Latin commonly spoken under the Roman Empire, we must take this latter language as our starting-point. The transformation was so gradual and continuous that we cannot assign any date at which speech ceases to be Latin and begins to be Provençal; since, however, the various Latin dialects-destined to become later the various Romance languages—began to diverge widely in the 6th and 7th centuries, we may, for the sake of convenience, say that the Latin period ends at about this time. Before this, certain changes (which affected all the Romance tongues) had occurred in the popular language, differentiating it considerably from the classic Latin of the Augustan writers. Although the most important of these alterations have to do with inflections rather than with pronunciation, the sound-changes in Vulgar Latin are by no means insignificant.
- 15. It is essential at the outset to distinguish "popular" from "learned" words. The former, having always been a part of the spoken vocabulary, have been subject to the operation of all the phonetic laws that have governed the development of the language. The latter class, consisting of words borrowed by clerks, at various periods, from Latin books and from the Latin of the Church, is naturally exempt from sound-changes that occurred in the vulgar tongue before

· · · XLVII, 481

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the time of their adoption. The form of learned words depends, in the first place, on the clerical pronunciation of Latin at the date of their borrowing; then, if they came into general use, their form was subject to the influence of any phonetic laws that were subsequently in force. The fate of borrowed terms differs, therefore, according to the time of their introduction and the degree of popularity which they afterwards attained.

I. ACCENT.

16. The place of the *primary* accent, which in Classic Latin was determined by quantity, remained unchanged in Vulgar Latin even after quantitative distinctions were lost. A short vowel before a mute followed by a liquid may, in Classic Latin, be stressed or unstressed; in Vulgar Latin it is usually stressed: cathédra, tenébra.¹

There are some exceptions to the rule of the persistence of the accent in Vulgar Latin:—

- I. An accented e or i immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to this latter vowel, and is itself changed to y: fillólus > fillólus, mullèrem > mulyère. This shift is perhaps due to a tendency to stress the more sonorous of two contiguous vowels.
- 2. An accented u immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to the *preceding* syllable, and is itself changed to w: habúërunt > ábwerunt, tenúëram > ténwera. This shift cannot be explained on the same principle as the foregoing one; it is perhaps due in every case to analogy—hábuit, ténui, for instance, being responsible for the change in habúerunt, tenúeram.
- 3. Verbs compounded with a prefix, if their constituent parts were fully recognized, were usually replaced in Vulgar Latin by a formation in which the vowel and the accent of the simple verb were preserved: déficit > disfácit, réddídi > reddédi, rénégo > renégo, réquirit > requærit. In

¹ For some exceptions see Rom., XXXII, 591; P. Marchot, Phon., p. 9.

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PROVENCAL PHONOLOGY.

[§ 18

recipit > recipit the accent but not the vowel was restored, speakers having ceased to associate this verb with capio. In colligo, érigo, éxeo, inflo the composite nature of the word was apparently not recognized.

- 4. The adverbs Illāc, Illāc accented their last syllable, by the analogy of hāc, hīc.
- 17. In Provençal the primary accent falls on the same syllable as in Vulgar Latin: bonitatem > V. L. bonitate > Pr. bontát, computu > V. L. computu > Pr. conte; cathedra > V. L. catédra > Pr. cadéira; filiólus > V. L. filyólus > Pr. filhóls, tenueram > V. L. ténwera > Pr. téngra, requerit > V. L. requærit > Pr. requér, illac > V. L. illác > Pr. lai.
- 1. Some learned words have an irregular accentuation, apparently due to a mispronunciation of the Latin: cándidum > quandi, grammática > remine - the gramatica, láchrymo > lagrim, spiritum > esprit (perhaps from the formula spiritui sancto). Others were adopted with the correct stress, but shifted it later: fábrica>fábrega>fabréga (and fárga), fémina>fémena>feména (and fémna), láchryma > lágrema > lagréma, séměnat > sémena > seména (and sémna), virginem > vérgena > vergina (and vérge).
 - 2. Dimércres < die Mercuri (perhaps through * die Mércoris) has evidently been influenced by divenres < die Veneris.
 - 3. Some irregularities due to inflection will be discussed under Morphology. Why hit of hand public to feetules?
 - 18. The secondary accent, in Vulgar Latin, seems not to have followed the Classic Latin quantitative rule, but to have fallen regularly on the second syllable from the primary stress: côgitó, cupiditátem. If this secondary accent followed the tonic, its vowel probably developed as an unstressed post-tonic vowel; if it preceded, its vowel was apparently treated as a stressed vowel. This treatment was doubtless continued in Provençal until the intertonic vowel dropped out: cógitó cógitánt > cug cúian (cf. cánto cántant > can cántan), *cominitiare > comén'tiare > coménzar > comensar. As may be seen from this last example, after the fall of the intertonic

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vowel, the secondary stress, being brought next to the primary, disappeared, and its vowel was henceforth unaccented. Cf. § 45, 1.

19. Short, unemphatic words had no accent in Vulgar Latin, and were attached as particles to the beginning or the end of another word: te videt, áma me. Such words, if they were not monosyllabic, tended to become so; a dissyllabic proclitic beginning with a vowel regularly, in Vulgar Latin, lost its first syllable: illum video > V. L. lu véyo > Pr. lo vei. A word which was used sometimes independently, sometimes as a particle, naturally developed double forms.

2. VOWELS.

QUANTITY.

- 20. Latin had the following vowels, which might be long or short: a, e, i, o, u. The diphthongs, α , α , au, eu, ui, were always long: α and α , however, were simplified into monophthongs, mainly in the Republican epoch, α being sounded \bar{e} , α probably \bar{e} ; au retained (save in some popular dialects) its old pronunciation; eu did not occur in any word that survived; ui, in cui, illui, in Vulgar Latin, was accented α (as in α). The simple vowels, except α , were, doubtless from early times, slightly different in quality according to their quantity, the long vowels being sounded close, the short open: \bar{e} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} ; \bar{e} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} .
- 21. Between the 1st and the 7th century of our era, the Classic Latin quantity died out: it had apparently disappeared from unstressed vowels as early as the 4th century, from stressed by the 6th. It left its traces, however, as we have seen, upon accentuation (§ 16), and also upon vowel

^{*} For Greek with few on O.F. & Row. Dec 1/5. XLM11 , ?!

quality, the originally long and short remaining differentiated in sound, if they were accented. Of the unaccented vowels, only i shows sure signs of such a differentiation, and even for i the distinction is evident only in a final syllable: $v\bar{e}n\bar{i}$ $v\bar{e}nit$ > veni venit.

ACCENTED VOWELS.

22. The vowels of Vulgar Latin are a, e, e, i, i, o, o, u, u, with the diphthongs au and ui; the old æ and œ had become identical in sound with e and e. As early as the 3d century of our era, i was changed, in nearly all the Empire, to e, and thus became identical with the vowel coming from original ē. A little later, perhaps, u, in the greater part of the Empire, became o, thus coinciding with the vowel that was originally ō. Ypsilon, in words taken from the Greek, was identified, in early borrowings, with Latin u; in later ones, with Latin i: $\beta \nu \rho \sigma a > Pr$. borsa, $\gamma \nu \rho \rho s > Pr$. girs. Omicron, which apparently had the close sound in Greek, generally (but not always) retained it in recently borrowed words in Vulgar Latin: $\tau \rho \rho \rho \sigma s > t$ tornus (cf. Pr. torn), but $\kappa \rho a \rho s > t$ colapus or colapus (cf. Pr. colp).

The development of the Vulgar Latin vowels in Provençal will now be examined in detail:—

a

23. Cl. L. ā, ă > V. L. a > Pr. a: ărborem > arbre, grātum > grat, mare > mar.

1. The ending -arius shows an irregular development in French and Provençal, the Provençal forms being mainly such as would come from -žrius; as in parlier, parleira. In the earliest stage we find apparently -er' and -er'a; then -er' and -eir'a; next -er, -ier and -eira, -ieira; finally, with a reciprocal influence of the two genders, -er, -ier, -eir, and -era, -iera, -eira, -eira; caballarium > c(h)avaler -ier, -eir, *man(u)aria

§ 25]

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

> manera -iera -eira -ieira. The peculiar treatment of this suffix has not been satisfactorily explained. See E. R. Zimmermann, Die Geschichte des lateinischen Suffixes -arius in den romanischen Sprachen, 1895; E. Staaff, Le suffixe -arius dans les langues romanes, Upsala, 1896, reviewed by Marchot in Zs., XXI, 296, by Körting in Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XXII, 55; Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237; Zimmermann in Zs., XXVI, 591; Thomas in Rom., XXXI, 481 and in Bausteine sur romanischen Philologie, 641. The likeliest theory is that of Thomas: that -arius was associated with the Germanic ending -ari and participated in the umlaut which affected the latter; cf. Phon., pp. 34-36.

2. In Gascony and Languedoc ei is used for ai < habeo. The ei perhaps developed first as a future ending (amar -ei) by analogy of the preterit ending -ei (amei): see Morphology, §§ 152, I, 162, (4), 175, (4), where this latter ending is discussed also. For a different explanation, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237.

3. A few apparent irregularies are to be traced to the vocabulary of Vulgar Latin. For instance, Pr. sereisa represents, not Cl. L. cerasus, but V. L. ceresa: see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 103. Uebre is from *operit, or aperit modified by *coperit = coperit. Voig is from *vocatum = vacuum: Einf., § 114.

4. Such forms as fontaina = fontana < fontāna, etc., and tres = tras < trans, etc., are French or belong to the borderland between French and Provençal.

carried; these cooked marcatra it into the Prince of the.

24. In some dialects, particularly in Rouergue, Limousin, Auvergne, and Dauphiné, a became a before a nasal, and at the end of a monosyllable or an oxytone: canem > can, grandem > grant, cadit > ca, stat > esta.

I. The conditions differ somewhat in the various dialects, according as the nasal consonant falls or remains, and is followed by another consonant or not. In Limousin the sound is a before an n that cannot fall: see § II, (5). In Rouergue and in Dauphiné, a appears before all nasals. The poets generally follow the Limousin usage. See F. Pfützner, Ueber die Aussprache des provenzalischen A, Halle, 1884.

25. Cl. L. ē, ĭ, œ> V. L. e> Pr. e: habēre> aver, mē> me,

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mensem > mes, plēnum > plen, rēgem > rei, vēnděre > vendre; inter> entre, fidem> fe, malitia> maleza, minus> mens, mit*těre* > metre, *siccum* > sec, *viridem* > vert; *pæna* > pena.

- Some words have e instead of e:-
- (a) The ending -ētis in the present indicative becomes -etz through the analogy of etz < ëstis.
- (b) Camel (also e), candela (also e), cruzel, fizel (also e), maissela have e through the analogy of the suffix -el <-Ellus. In camel the substitution probably goes back to Vulgar Latin.
- (c) Many learned words, including proper names, have e for e: decret,

rhymes. Bartolomeo Zorzi, a Venetian, rhymes –es with –es; in Catalan

- Elizabet, Moyses, pantera, requies, secret (e), sencer. (d) Esper for esper $\langle sp\bar{e}ro, quet for quet \langle qu(i)\bar{e}tum$ are perhaps bad $\langle c \rangle$
- these two endings were not distinguished. (e) Individual cases: ades, 'at once,' probably from ad id tosum, seems to have been affected by pres and apres < ad pressum; mostier < monastērium shows the influence of ministērium; ner nier (also ner negre) nigrum perhaps shows the influence of enter entier and the numerous adjectives in -er -ier; neu nieu ney < nivem has been attracted by breu greu, leu; senestre (cf. late Lat. sinexter) is evidently influenced by destre.
- Many words have i instead of e:— (a) Berbitz = vervēcem, camis = camisia, come from alternative V. L. forms, berbicem, *camīsia. Planissa (also -esa), sebissa, etc., probably. show -īcia for -itia. For dit = digitum see § 65, Y, 1.
- (b) In many learned words Latin I is represented by i in Provençal: albir, martire, edifici, iuzizi, servizi, vici, etc.; iusticia, leticia, tristicia, etc. Aurilha (also e) < auricula, cilh, (also cieilh, sobreselhs) < cilium, issilh <
- exilium, familha < familia, maistre (also maestre maiestre) < magistrum, meravilha (also e) < mirabilia, perilh < periculum, etc., are probably learned forms. Maistre and mestre are French. Co actions
- (c) Ciri (cere) = cēreum, iure (cf. ebriac) = ēbrium (or * ěbrium), marquis (e), merci (e), pals (e) = * pagensem, plazir (e), pris (e), etc., are h. h. French. For a discussion of iure and a different explanation of ciri, hages see P. Savj-Lopez, Dell' "Umlaut" provenzale, 1902, p. 4.
 - (d) Ins (also entz) < intus, dins (also dens) < de intus, dintre (cf. en,

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¹ Cf. R. Karch, Die nordfranzösischen Elemente im Altprovenzalischen, 1901.

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§ 28]

accidia

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

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entre) < de inter have not been satisfactorily explained. Regular forms from ANI, MT with e are found in Béarn, Gascony, Dauphiné, and the Alps.

- (e) Individual cases: tapit < ταπήτων shows the modern pronunciation of Greek, η; verin = venēnum is an example of substitution of suffix.
- 3. Arnei, fei, mei = me, palafrei, perquei, sei = se are French or Poitevin forms; they are common in William of Poitiers. Mercey, rey = re, used by Marcabru, seem to be due either to an imitation of such forms as the preceding or to the analogy of crei cre < crēdo. Cf. § 65, N, 3.
- 4. Contranher seems to be a fusion of constringere and contrahere; vendanha < vindēmia shows French influence.
 - 26. An e in hiatus became i: ligat>lia, via>via.
- 27. When there was in the next syllable a final i, V. L. e was changed in Provençal to i: ecc'illi > cilh, ecc'isti > cist, fēcī > fis, *prēsī > pris, *vēnuī > vinc, vigintī *vintī > vint.
- I. In the nominative plural of masculine nouns and adjectives this change was regularly prevented by the analogy of the singular and the accusative plural: missi > mes, pleni > plen. We find, however, cabil < capilli.
- 2. Dec for *dic < dēbuī seems to have been attracted by the dec < dēbuit of the third person. Venguest for venguist < *venuistī is due both to the influence of the plural forms venguem, venguets and to the analogy of the weak preterits, such as cantest, vendest.

ę

- 28. Cl. L. ĕ, æ> V. L. e> Pr. e: infernum > enfern, ferrum > fer, pědem > pe; cælum > cel, quærit > quer.
- 1. Such forms as glisia, lire, pire, pis, profit are French. Profich may be a cross between profieg and profit, or it may be due to the analogy of dich.
- 2. Cossint, mint, sint, used by Arnaut Daniel, are perhaps faulty rhymes.
- 3. Ausil < avicilli, in the Boeci, may be due to the analogy of such plural forms as cabil < capilli, il < illi, etc. Briu, sometimes used for breu < brèvem, is evidently connected with abrivar, 'hasten,' the origin of

which is uncertain. Elig shows the influence either of eligir (beside elegir) or of dig. Ginh = genh < ingenium evidently follows ginhos < ingeniosus and its derivatives. Isme (esme) is a post-verbal noun from *ismar (cf. azismamen), a dialect form of esmar < astimare. Quis < *quasi, tinc < tēnui are due to the analogy of pris < *prēsī, vinc < *vēnui.

- 4. Beside neula < něbula, we find nebla, neble, presumably from the same source, and also nible, nibl, nibla, niula, niula, nivbl. According to Nigra, Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 494, nūbes > nūbilus > *nibūlus (and *nibūlus?), whence might be derived *niūlus *niulus, which would account for nibl-a, niul-a, and perhaps for a *nivol > nivbl. Nible might be regarded as a cross between neble and niul. Cf. § 38, 3.
- 5. In es < ist the e probably comes from such combinations as me's, que's, understood as m'es, qu'es. Espelh < spēculum shows the influence of cosselh, solelh. Estela presupposes a Latin *stēla or *stēlla for stēlla: cf. the Fr. and It.
- 6. Plais, 'hedge' seems to be a cross between plexus and paxillus, 'fence.' Vianda (< vivenda?) is probably French.
 - 7. Volon < volentem shows the influence of the ending -undus.
- 8. Greuga < con-gregar has been influenced by greu < *grèvem = gravem influenced by lèvem. Cf. grey < grègem.
- 29. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, e became e: bene ben, dicentem being, tempus tems, tenet ten, veniam venta, ventum vent.
- 30. Early in the history of Provençal, before u, i, or one of the palatal consonants l', r', s', z', y, tš, dž, an e broke into ie, except in a few dialects of the west and north: děus > dieus, měum > mieu; amāvi > *amai > amei amiei, *fěria > fieira, *ec(c)lěsia? (Cf. Zs., XXV, 344) > glieiza, lěctum > lieit, pějus > pieis; větůlum věclum > vielh, ministěrium > mestier, *ec(c)lěsia? > glieza, mědia > mieia, lěctum > lieg. There seems to be also, at least in some dialects, a tendency to break the e before a g or a k: lěgunt > liegon; *sěquit > sec

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¹ See § 175, (4).

siec, subjunctive siegas (sega), but infinitive segre < * sequere.1

The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal (or velar) consonant.² Before u it occurred everywhere except in the extreme west; before palatals the e apparently remained intact both in the extreme west and in Quercy, Rouergue, Auvergne, and Dauphiné. At first, no doubt, the diphthong was less marked than it became in the 12th and 13th centuries. It is not indicated in our oldest text, the Boeci (breu, deu, eu, mei, meler, vel)⁸, and it frequently remains unexpressed even in the writings of the literary period.

It is to be noted that e does not break before u < l nor before $i < \delta$: $b \in llus > bels > beus$, $p \in llus > peira$, $P \in$

¹ There is no diphthong in the preterit ending -ec: cazec, etc.

³ This view is a modification of the theory developed by C. Voretzsch in his admirable treatise, Zur Geschichte der Diphthongierung im Altprovensalischen, Halle, 1900. That e is not affected by an i in the following syllable is shown by such words as emperi, evangeli, salteri, which must have been adopted fairly early. The same thing is true of o: apostoli, oli, etc.

⁸ The diphthong of o occurs, however, in this text, v. 203, in uel < ŏculi.

^{*} Derrier (derer, dereer), beside dereire, is manifestly due to the influence of primier. To the influence of the same ending -ier, as in carr(i)eira, is to be ascribed the diphthong in cad(i)eira < cathědra.

⁵ The things just said of e are true of e: there is no breaking before u < 1 (tout = tolt) nor before ts, dz, s, z (nöcet > notz, * nöptias > nossas).

place after these consonants had ceased to be palatal. We may ascribe it with some confidence to the period between the seventh and tenth centuries. *

- 1. A number of cases of ie before r are doubtless to be explained by analogy. Hèri > er; autre + er > autrer, which, through the influence of adjectives in -er -ier, became autrier: hence the form ier. Fèrio, mèreo > fier, mier, hence, by analogy, the first person forms profier, quier, then the third person forms fier, mier, profier, quier, sierf (but servon, serva), and the subjunctives ofieira, sofie(i)ra.
- Iesc (= ĕxeo), iescon, iesca receive their diphthong either from earlier forms with s' or from ieis < ĕxii.

į

- 31. Cl. L. i>V. L. i: amīcum>amic, fīnem>fin, trīstem>trist.
 - 1. Freg, freit are from V. L. *frigdum = frigidum, the I being perhaps due to the analogy of rigidum.

 32. In the 13th century or earlier the group iu, in most
 - 32. In the 13th century or earlier the group iu, in most dialects, became ieu: captīvum > caitiu caitieu, astīvum > estiu estieu, revīvēre > reviure revieure, sī vōs > sius sieus.

ö

- 33. Cl. L. ō, ŭ > V. L. o > Pr. o, which developed into u probably during the literary period: dolorem > dolor, spōnsa > esposa, flōrem > flor; būcca > boca, gūla > gola.
- 1. An irregular φ , which is found in some words, goes back to Vulgar Latin: $\operatorname{cobra} = re-\operatorname{cuperat}$, costa (also φ) = $\operatorname{constat}$, $\operatorname{nora} = \operatorname{nura}$, $\operatorname{ou} = \operatorname{ovum}$, $\operatorname{ploia} = \operatorname{pluvia}$, $\operatorname{red} \operatorname{obla} = *\operatorname{red} \operatorname{uplat}$, $\operatorname{sobra} = \operatorname{superat}$, $\operatorname{suefre} = \operatorname{suffero}$. V. L. *coperat may be regarded as a fusion of cuperat and *coperit (§ 40, 1; cf. Rom. XXXI, 9); *costat is unexplained; *nora shows the influence of soror and socora; the of of *ovum has been explained as due to differentiation from the following v; *ploia is to be connected with the popular plovere (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 142); *soperat follows the analogy of *coperat; *soffero evidently follows offero. Redobla (also φ)

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PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

§ 36]

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2 I

is not accounted for. If troba has anything to do with turbat, it was perhaps influenced by probat (cf. Zs., XXVIII, 50). Engoissa < V. L. *angostia = angustia. See A. Thomas, Nouveaux essais de philologie Colobra V. F. demora française, 1904, 339.

2. Some words have ü: iüs (also ios) < deorsum shows the influence of süs < sūrsum; lür (usually lor) < illorum (cf. lur in the dialects of Navarre and Aragon) comes through an *illurum due to the analogy of illūi = illi; melhura (o), peiura (o) perhaps follow aura < *a(u)gūrat; r wra rancura is a mixture of rancorem and cura; uis is from V. L. ustium ōstium (cf. Zs., XXV, 355); üpa < ŭpŭpa is due to onomatopæa.

3. The adverbs ar, ara, er, era, eras, meaning 'now,' are hardly to be connected with hora. Meyer-Lübke takes era, etc., from a Latin *era corresponding to Greek apa; ara, ar may come directly from apa, ap: appli 44: ha lina, ea hora (") cf. Gr., III, 552, note.

< direct

4. Tonleu, 'tariff,' from τελώνων, shows double metathesis. adouts, 'fount,' see A. Thomas, Essais de philologie française, 1897, 205. La dots

Name to service of any local transfer of the service of the servic an o becomes ü in various dialects: cogitat> cuia cuida, * stŭdiat > estüia, fŭgit > füg, refŭgium > refüg; jŭngëre > iünher, ungere > ünher, pugnum > pünh; duī > düi, sum > so + i > süi. The ü before tš, dž apparently occurs everywhere except in Dauphiné; before n' it is to be found in nearly all the dialects of the north and west; before final i it seems to be limited to Bordeaux, Auvergne, and a part of Languedoc.

35. Cl. L. $\delta > V$. L. $\varrho > Pr$. ϱ : $c \delta r > c \varrho r$, $c \delta r \rho u s > c \varrho r s$, mortem > mort, opera > obra, rota > roda.

- For demora (also ο) < *demŏrat, see Meyer-Lükbe, Gram., I, 204, § 220. For proa (also proa, prueva) < probat, see Rom., XXXI, 10, footnote 3. force > her, furn ... fi . i cigutar
- 36. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, o became o: bonum > bon, fontem

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

22

[§ 37

> font, pontem > pont. Cf. E. Levy in Mélanges de philologie romane dédiés à Carl Wahlund, 1896, p. 207.

1. If the nasal was n', the vowel remained open in most or all of these dialects: cögnita > coinda cuenda cuenda, lönge > lonh luenh, sömnium > sonh suenh.

37. Early in the history of Provençal, before u, a labial consonant, a g or a k, an i, or one of the palatal consonants l', n', r', s', z', y, tš, dž, an o broke, in most dialects, into a diphthong which developed into ue, üo, üe, or ü¹: bŏvem > bou büou büeu, * ou vou vou vou vou vous > nous nüous nüeus; *copero > cobri cüebre, nova > nova nüeva, opus > ops üops, probat > proa prüeva, * tropo? > trop trüeb; coquus > cocs cuocs cuex, focum > foc fuoc fuec fue, crocus > grocs grüocs grüecs, jocum > ioc iüoc iüec iüc, locus > locs lüocs lüecs, $l\check{o}cat > l\ddot{u}oga$, $p\check{o}tui > p\ddot{u}ec$, $s\check{o}c(\check{e})rum > (sozer)$ sogre süegre (fem. süegra); *ingrössiat > engrüeissa, *angostia > engoissa engueissa, noctem > noit nuoit nueit, octo > oit üeit, postea > poissas püeissas, proximus > proymes prüeymes; fölia > folha füolha füelha fülha, öcülus oclus > olhs üolhs üelhs ülhs, longe > lonh lüenh, somnium > sonh süenh, corium > cor cuer, postea > pues, proximum > prosme pruesme, *plŏia > ploia plüeia plüia, *inŏdiat > enoia enüeia enüia, * podiat > poia püeia püia, noctem > nüoch nüech nüh, octo > üeg.

The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal or velar consonant, or to a premature partial closure

¹ The conditions are not quite the same as for e: an e does not break before a labial (neps) nor before n' (venha). Breaking before g and k seems more general for o than for e.

² So the second person forms *cuebres*, *uebres*, *uefres*, and the third person forms *cuebre*, *uebre*, *uefre*; cf. cobron, obri, etc.

of the lips in anticipation of a following labial. Before i or a palatal the diphthong was at the start presumably üo; before u or a labial or velar consonant, uo: from these two types, the first of which influenced the second, came the later developments. Ü is a reduction of üo or üe; it apparently does not occur before u.

The dialect conditions are mixed, the development in each region depending somewhat on the following sound. In the southwest, o and ue seem to prevail; in the northwest, ü; in the west, in Limousin, and in Auvergne, üe; in Languedoc, üo; in the east and south, üe, üo, o.

The date of breaking is discussed in § 30.

- 1. In some words where a diphthong would be expected, none is found, although it may have existed: mou < movet, nou < novem, plou < *plovit; trop < prop; brocs < *broccus, iogon < jocunt, logui < loco. The form pioc or piec < potui is regularly reserved for the first person, potuit being represented by poc.
- 2. A few cases of irregular breaking are easily explained: püosc püesc (=pŏssum) and püosca püesca (=pŏssim) owe their diphthong either to earlier forms with s' or to the analogy of püec; sofre süefre süfre (=sŭffert) are from *sŏfferit, formed upon *ŏfferit = ŏffert (cf. § 33, 1); vüelc (=vŏlui) follows the analogy of vüelh (<*vŏleo=vŏlo) and of püec.

u

38. Cl. L. ū>V. L. u>Pr. ü: *habūtus>avütz, jūstum>iüst, mūrum>mür, mūtus>mütz, nūdus>nütz, plūs>plüs.

The date of the change of u into ü is not known; there is no ü in Catalan, and there may have been none in early Gascon. It seems likely that the Celts, when they adopted Latin, pronounced ū a little further forward in the mouth than did the Romans; that their u continued to advance gradually toward the front of the mouth until it became ü; and that this ü spread to the parts of France that were not

m. L. in Zs. f. fr. Spir, XLI, 1; some evidence that u> is conier in C. the in E. or W. hal of S. Tr. - XLIV, 1/3, 75-

question and us he wish, 100 (Octo, 1913), p. 49.2: in some his & is had before is (bound) as before is Cat., indicated by From 150 in it., but prior to the to the initial of the control of the control

originally Celtic.¹ In the literary period the sound was probably ü in most or all of the Provençal dialects.

- 1. Pr. onze represents a V. L. *ŭndžcim, which in Gaul and Spain replaced ūndžcim. Loita lücha, trocha trücha probably go back to Latin double forms, *lŭcta lūcta, *trŭcta trūcta.
- 2. Nossas < *noptias = nuptias, by analogy of *novius, 'bridegroom,' from novus.
- 3. Before u, Pr. ii apparently became i: nūbėm>*niu>niu, pū-licem>*piuze>piuze. See §§ 63, (4); 74, (2). nūbėrium>*sūure saure qūshus>Yrh *aushus in tr. 8 Sh.: qost.

au

- 39. Cl. L. au > V. L. au > Pr. au: aurum > aur, gaudium > gaug, paucum > pauc, thesaurus > tesaurs.
- 1. Bloi < blaupr, ioi, ioia, ioios, lotia < *laubja, noisa, onta < haunipa, or, sor, tesor, etc., are French or Poitevin; ioi is a good Poitevin form.

 Iai, 'joy,' seems to be a fusion of ioi and Pr. iai = gai.

2. Anta < haunipa is unexplained. S.F. : had aunta.

UNACCENTED VOWELS.

- 40. (1) The fate of an unaccented vowel depended largely upon the syllable in which it stood: in general, unstressed vowels in the initial syllable remained intact, while all vowels, except a, fell (at different dates) in the other syllables. The fall of unaccented vowels resulted in many new consonant groups: collocáre > colcár, hóminem > ómne, sábbatum > sápte.
- (2) The vowels e and i, instead of falling or remaining unchanged, became y in Vulgar Latin, early in our era: alea > alya, diŭrnus > dyurnus, mědium > medyu. Similarly u became w: placui > placwi, těnuis > tenwis.
- 1. Apparently, however, ęé, įć > e; oó, uó > o: prěhěnděre > prěnděre; abičtem > *abētem, factěbat > *facēbat, partětem > parētem, quietus >

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¹ For a discussion of the date, see K. Nyrop, Grammaire historique de la langue française (Copenhagen, 1899-1903), I, § 187.

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quētus; cöhörtem > cōrtem, cööpērit > cōpērit * cöpērit; duödēcim > * dōdēcim. The short e and o in prēndēre and * cōpērit are not accounted for. In multērem 1 > Pr. molher the i remained long enough (perhaps under the influence of the nominative mulier) to palatalize the l.

INITIAL SYLLABLE.

- 41. Usually, in the literary language, Latin a> Pr. a; Latin æ, œ, and e, i (without regard to quantity)> Pr. e; Latin o, u (long or short)> Pr. o; Lat. au> Pr. au, unless the next syllable contained an ú, in which case the au was reduced (in the Vulgar Latin time) to a. Ex.: amīcum> amic, caballus > cavals; æquālem> egal, *pænitěre> penedre, dēbēre> dever, měliōrem> melhor, dīlěctum> deleit, dīvīnum> devin, dīvīděre > devire, fīnīre> fenir, mǐnōrem> menor; plōrāre> plorar, sōlātium> solatz, cŏlōrem> color, *vŏlēre> voler, mūstēla> mostela, sūbĭnde> soven; aucěllum> auzel, audīre> auzir, augūstum> aost, *augūrium> aür.
- 1. An initial vowel is occasionally lost, either through elision with the article (*eclėsia > *egleisa, la egleisa > la gleisa) or through the dropping of a prefix (ingėnium > engenh genh): episcopus > bisbes, alauda > lauzeta, occasionem > ocaiso caiso.
- 2. In a few words the vowel of the initial syllable disappeared, for some unknown reason, before r in Vulgar Latin: *cörrötülāre>*crōtū-lāre>crollar, dīrēctus>drēctus²>dreits, quirītāre>*crītāre>cridar.
- 3. Domne, used familiarly as a proclitic (§ 19), lost its first syllable, and, before a vowel, was reduced to n. The combinations de n, que n (followed by a proper name) were understood as d'en, qu'en; hence the title en, 'Sir.' See Schultz-Gora in Zs., XXVI, 588; Elise Richter in Zs., XXVII, 193; V. Cescini, Manualetto provenzale, 2d ed., 1905, 168 ff.
 - 4. The proclitic o probably comes from a V. L. ot, not from aut.
 - 42. The vowel of the initial syllable, especially in verbs,

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a)quilia
(a)quilia
(mendola
bortiga
(amor que

¹ For the accent, see § 16, 1.

² Spelled drictus: see Schuchardt, Vokalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 422.

26

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

[§ 44

was extremely subject to the influence of analogy: cülhir (o) through cülh (o) $< c\"{olligit}$, dizen $< d\bar{i}c\~{e}ntem$ through dire $< d\bar{i}c\~{e}ne$, dürar through dür $< d\bar{u}rum$ and düra $< d\bar{u}rat$, finir through fin $< f\~{i}nem$, fivela through fibla $< f\~{i}bula$, pueiar (o) through pueia (o) $< *p\'{o}diat$.

40mBlors?; 40mBlors?; 25.f.fr. Spr. KU1,2/4,101

ع واحداثهم

1. Avangeli (e) is perhaps influenced by avan; bliso (e) < blas may possibly have been influenced by tiso; gazardo < wiδarlon shows the influence of gazanhar; in piucela (pülcela) < *pūellicēlla (Zs., XXV, 343) the püu of the first syllable was changed to piu just as pūlicem became piuze (see § 38, 3); in vas = ves < ve(r)sus the a is due to the analogy of az < ad; vais is unexplained, vaus follows daus (§ 44, 6). If desse is from de exin, the first syllable is irregular. Beside maniar < manducare are unexplained forms meniar miniar. In duptar (o), suritz (o) the u doubtless represents u or o, not ü. Girofle < Kapvbφνλλοr and olifan orifan < elephantem are French.

umbilicers > insb - emboriage ambolethe ombolite

43. Sometimes the initial syllable was altered by a change of prefix or a false idea of etymology: aucire < occidere (cf. the Italian and Rumanian forms), diman (e) < de mane (cf. di < diem), dementre < dum interim (cf. de < de), engoissa < ** angüstia (cf. en < in), envanezir < evanēscēre, escür < obscūrum (cf. es - < ex -), preon prefon (o) < profündum, redon < rotündum (re- in V. L.: Schuchardt, Vokalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 213), trabalh < trepalium (cf. tra - < tra - = trans -).

Dimenge (also ditmenge) is from die dominico.

1. On the same principle are doubtless to be explained such double forms as evori (a), saboros (e), socors (e), somondre (e), soror (e). Serori occurs in a Latin inscription.

- 2. The prefix eccu-, under the influence of ac and atque, became *accuin southern Gaul and elsewhere: aco<*accu'hoc, aquel<*accu'illum,
 aquest<*accu'istum, aqui<*accu'hīc. Eissi<ecce hīc sometimes becomes aissi through the analogy of aissi<ac sīc.
 - 3. In such forms as tresanar, the prefix tres- is French.
 - 44. Local or partial phonetic changes affected the initial

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PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

termin turnen bofar bufe'r botellum > budil

27

syllable of many words: demandar (do-) < demandare, emplir (üm-) < implēre; ciutat cieutat < cīvītātem; eissir issir < exīre, getar gitar < * jēctāre; crear criar < creāre; merce (mar-) < mercēdem; delgat (dal-) < delicātum.

- 1. Nearly everywhere there is a tendency to change e to o, u, or ii before a labial, especially before m: premier promier prumier, remas romas, semblar somblar, trebalh trubalh. So de ves > *do ves > dous.
 - 2. In the 13th century, nearly everywhere, iu > ieu: piucela pieucela.
- 3. Many dialects of the north and west change ei and e to i: deissendre dissendre, eissam issam, eissi issi, eissilh issilh, leisso lisso, meitat mitat; degerir (i), denhar (i), disnar, en in, enfern (i), entrar (i), envers (i), escien icient, proclitic est ist, estar (i), estiers (i), Felip (i), gelos (i), genhos (i), genolh (i), gequir (i), guereiar (i), guerensa (i), in)vern, isnel irnel, peior pigor, proclitic per pir, premier (i), semblar (i), serven (i), serventes (i), sevals (i), trebalhar (i), tremblar (i). In disnar, ivern, isnel only i is found. In some dialects there is an alternation of e and i, e being used formand when there is an i in the next syllable, i when there is none: fentl, sirvén. Samula singular la vest < vicinum the e probably goes back to V. L.: cf. Fr.
- 4. In a few dialects e in hiatus with a following vowel becomes i: crear criar, leal lial, prear priar, preon prion, real rial.
- 5. In many dialects of the north and west e has a tendency to become a before r: guerentia garensa, merce marce, pergamen pargamen.
- 6. In some dialects there is a tendency to assimilate e to an á in the next syllable: delgat dalgat, gigant iaian, deman (a), semblar (a), serrar (a), tremblar (a). So de vás (§ 42, 1) > da vás > dávas; hence daus, under the influence of deus > de ves.

INTERTONIC SYLLABLE.

45. The term *intertonic* is applied to the syllable that follows the secondary (§ 18) and precedes the primary accent. In this position all vowels, except a, regularly disappeared in popular words, probably between the 5th and the 8th century¹; a apparently remained: *būllicāre> boiar (bollegar),

¹ The period of the fall of the intertonic vowel covers, in part, the period of the voicing of intervocalic surds (§ 65); sometimes the vowel fell too soon for the surd

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curry " and"

bonitātem > bontat, *carricāre > carcar cargar, caballicāre > cavalcar cavalgar, cērēbēllum > cervel, cīvītātem > ciutat, cŏllō-cāre > colcar colgar, dēlīcātum > delcat delgat, excommūnīcāre *excommīnīcāre > escomeniar, vērēcūndia > vergonha; calamēllum > calamel, invadēre *invadīre > envazir, margarīta > margarīda, mīrabīlia > miravilha, parav(e) rēdus > palafres.

- 1. The vowel is preserved in a number of words in which it originally bore the secondary accent (§ 18): abbreviáre > abreviar, calimniáre > caloniar, *ericiónem > erisso; on the other hand, *cominitiáre (through *comin'tiáre) > comensar, partitiónem (through *pártiónem) > parso. Cf. Zs., XXVII, 576, 684, 693, 698, 701, 704. When kept, the vowel is sometimes altered: *carōnea *caróneáta > caraunhada, *cupidietósus > cobeitos cobitos, papiliónem > pabalho.
- 2. The prefix minus— was reduced to mis— (or mes—) in Gaul, perhaps at the close of the Vulgar Latin period: *minus-prétiat > mespreza. Menes— was used also. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 43, 44. *
- 3. Mostier is from *monisterium, altered, by the influence of ministerium, from monasterium. Comprar is from V. L. comperare. Calmelh calmelha (cf. calamel above) are Provençal formations from calm. Caresma or caresme seems to be from V. L. *quarrestma = quadragestma. Anedier < anatarium shows the influence of anét ánet < anatarium (§ 48, 1).
- 4. In learned words the vowel is generally preserved: irregular, irritar, pelicán, philozophia. The vowel is, however, often altered, the exchange of e and i being particularly frequent: esperit, fementl, orifán, peligri (e), soteirán (sotrán) < subterraneum influenced by dereirán and primeirán.
- 46. Very often the intertonic vowel was preserved by the analogy of some cognate word or form in which that vowel was stressed: devinár through devin, finimén through finir, guerreiár through guerreia, noiridúra through noirir, oblidár through oblit, pertusár through pertúsa, reusar through reúsa, servidór through servire.

to be voiced, sometimes it did not. The relation of the fall of unstressed vowels to the development of intervocalic consonants, in French, has been examined by L. Clédat in the Revue de philologie française, in a series of articles beginning XVII, 122. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 84-90.

I. In such cases the preserved vowel is sometimes altered, the exchange of e and i being especially common: avinén, covinén, sovinénsa, cf. venír, ven; enginhár, enginhós, cf. genh; envelzír, cf. vil; gemenén, cf. gemir; issarnit (eissernit), from excernère; randóla, from hirándála, perhaps influenced by randón; temerós (o), from *timorōsus, influenced by temer; traazó (i), from traditiōnem, with a substitution of suffix; volentiérs, from voluntarius, under the influence of volén < volentem.

•

PENULT.1

- 47. (1) The vowel of the penult of proparoxytones fell in many words in Vulgar Latin, especially between a labial and another consonant, and between two consonants one of which was a liquid: *avica>*auca, cŏm(i)tem, cŏmp(u)tum, dēb(i)tum, dōm(i)nus²; alt(e)ra, vig(i)lat, cal(i)dus, vir(i)dem; frig(i)dus, nitidus>*nittus, pŏs(i)tus, pūtidus>*pūttus.
- (2) The classic Latin -culus comprises an original -clus (sæclum) and an original -culus (auricula). In popular Latin both were -clus (*macla, öclus, etc.), to which was assimilated -tulus in current words (větulus > věclus, etc.).
- (3) Many popular words which in Vulgar Latin had very generally lost the vowel were for some reason introduced into southern Gaul in their classical forms, and not a few were adopted both in the uncontracted and in the syncopated state: fragilem > frágel (cf. Fr. fraile, It. frale), jűvěnem > iove (cf. Fr. iuevne); clěricum > clergue clěricum > clerc, dēbitum > deute dēb'tum > depte, flēbilem > frevol flēb'lem > freble, mal'habitum > malaute mal'habitum > malaute, nitidum > nede * nittum > net, hōminem > ome hōm'nem > omne, pōpūlum > pobol pōp'lum > poble.
- 1. Cognitum seems to have become *conhede, whence coinde cuende conge. Cf. § 79, Gnd, Gnt.

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¹ Cf. H. Wendel, Die Entwicklung der Nachtonvokale aus dem Lateinischen ins Provenzalische, 1906.

1 Domnus may be the older form.

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- 48. The unaccented penult vowels that had not already fallen disappeared, in most cases, in the transition from Latin to Provençal: *carricat> carca, cŏllŏcat> colca, cŭrrĕre > corre, spathŭla> espatla, *ĕssĕre (=ĕsse)> estre, ī(n)sŭla isla, pĕssšmum> pesme, pōnĕre> ponre, *rīdĕre> rire, tabŭla> taula, tŏllĕre> tolre.
- I. A apparently was more tenacious than other vowels, and frequently remained as an indistinct e: anătem > ánet, which, being associated with the diminutive ending -ét, became anét (cf. modern Pr. anèdo); cannābim > cánebe (learned?); cölāphum > **cólebe > cǫlbe, but cöl*phum > cǫlp; Stěphănum > Esteve; lampāda > lámpeza; örgănum > órguene (later orguéne) órgue; örphănum > orfe; raphānum > ráfe; Rhödānum > Rozer; *sēcāle (= sēcāle) > séguel (but cf. modern segle selho). Cf. A. Thomas in the Journal des savants, June, 1901, p. 370. See also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 90-94. Cf. § 45, footnote. It is noteworthy that *cólebe ultimately lost its penult, while the other words lost the final syllable or none.
 - 49. Under certain conditions, however, a vowel which had not fallen in the Latin of southern Gaul was often kept in Provençal. It was then probably indistinct in sound, and was written usually e, but occasionally o.
 - (1) After c', g', or y the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others. When the c', g', or y was intervocalic, forms with and without the vowel are about equally common; when the c', g', or y was preceded by a consonant, forms with the vowel predominate, and after cons. + c' the vowel was apparently never lost. After intervocalic c': cōcēre (= cōquēre)> coire cozer, dīcēre> dire dízer, dūcēre > düre *düzer (condücir dedüzir), facēre> faire *fazer (fazedor, etc.), gracīlem > graile, *nōcēre (= nōcēre) > noire nozer, placītum> plach, sōcērum> sozer (sogre is from sōcrum), *vōcītum (= vacuum)> vuech. After intervocalic g' or y: bajūlus> bailes, fragīlem> frágel, imagīnem> imáge, lēgēre > leire legír (through *leger?), rīgīdum> reide rege, rīgīda>

regeza, *tragěre (= trahěre) > traire tragír (through *tráger?). After cons. + c': carcer > cárcer, crēscěre > creisser, nascěre > náisser, pascěre > páisser, parcère > párcer, *törcěre (= tŏrquēre) > torzer. After cons. + g' or y: angělum > ángel (learned?), *cŏll'gěre (= cŏllĭgěre, through cŏllĭgo etc.) > colre cuelher colhír, *dē-ēr'gěre (= ērĭgěre) > derdre derzer, *fülgěrem (from fülger = fülgur) > fouzer, jüngěre > ionher, margěnem > marge, plangěre > planher, virginem > vergena verge.

- (2) After ks, s, ss, and sy the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others: dīxĕrunt>diron disseron (through *dísseron)¹, dūxĕrunt> düystrent düisseron (*dúisseron), fraxĭnum> fraisne fraisse, traxĕrunt> traisseron (*tráisseron), tōxĭcum> tueissec; asĭnum> asne ase, mĭsĕrum > miser (learned), *prē(n)sĕrunt> preson prezeron (*prezeron), rema(n)sĕrunt> remastrent remaseron (*remáseron); *ĕssĕre (=ĕsse)> estre esser (used in Rouergue, Limousin, Marche, and Dauphiné), *mĭssĕrunt (=mīsĕrunt)> mestrunt (mesdren) meseron (*messeron), passĕrem > pásser; *cō(n)-sĕre (=consuĕre)> coser (cozír is from V. L. *cosīre).
- (3) Between a labial and a dental the vowel was apparently kept: căpidum > cobe,² fēmina > femena feme (but fēm'na > femna), jūvěnem > iove, * lūminem > lüme (lūmen > lüm), hŏminem > ómen óme (but hŏm'něm > omne), těpidum > tebe,² těrminum > terme. Cf. § 48, 1. Sa baha na a ha crama na gama a
- (4) Between a dental and a guttural the vowel remained long enough for the guttural to become y (§ 52; § 65, G): mědicum > * medegu > * medeye > medže (= mege). If the first consonant was a liquid or a nasal, the vowel apparently allowed the guttural to become y in some dialects, but not in

¹ The change of accent, in this verb and others, was due to the analogy of the first and fourth conjugations (canteron, sentiron) and to the influence of the second person plural (dissetz).

² The feminine forms cobéza, tebéza, etc., show a change of accent.

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others: *carricat> caria carga, clericum> clerie clergue, monăchum > monie mongue. Caballicat > cavalga, collocat > colca colga show an earlier fall. In clercum>clerc the fall goes back to Latin times.

- (5) Between lv and r the vowel was kept in some dialects and lost in others: solver solver, volvere > volver volvre, pŭlvěrem > polvera.
- 50. Some learned proparoxytones kept for a while both post-tonic vowels (usually written e), but most of them ultimately either shifted their accent to the penult (§ 17, 1) or dropped their final syllable: doměstřeum > domestegue, larund mil crima > lágrema, měritum > merite, hörrida > oreza, rēgimen > regeme; fistula > festóla, fragilem > fragil, meritum > merit, would terminum > termini; diaconum > diague, flebilem > frevol (cf. woi fleb'lem > freble), nitidum > nede (cf. * nittum > net), ordinem ? habilem > orde, populum > pobol (cf. pop'lum > poble), principem > princep prince. Cf. § 47, (3).

FINAL SYLLABLE.

- 51. As early as the 8th century, in popular words, the vowels of final syllables fell, the fall occuring first, perhaps, after liquids: heri>er, male>mal; bonus>bos, colaphum> colp, cogito > cug, panem > pan, pretium > pretz.
- (1) Latin a, however, remained, being generally pronounced a: audiām > auia, bonā > bona, fīliās > filhas.1
- (2) Latin final i probably remained in all dialects later than the 8th century, and in some until the beginning of the literary period: hábuī>águi>aguí. Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i: see § 27.

¹ In most of the modern dialects (but not in Gascony and lower Languedoc) this a has become o: rosa > roso. But in the Limousin dialects and some others -as > -a: rosas > rosa.

- (3) Latin i and u remained if they were immediately preceded by an accented vowel: fuī>fūi, měī>mei, sŭī>soi; cavum *caum> chau, dĕus> deus, ĕgo *ĕo *ĕu> eu, rīvum rīum ≮riu. In such cases the two vowels formed a diphthong.
- (4) Before final nt Latin e, u remained as e, o: cantent > canten, vēndunt > vendon.
- I. In Aude, Tarn, Aveyron, Corrèze, and a part of Haute-Garonne, final \(\bar{\text{l}}\) was preserved as late as the 12th century: pagadi, salvi, soli. See Rom., XIV, 291-2 and XXXIV, 362. Such forms occur also in Vaud and Dauphiné. Cf. Gram., II, p. 82.— In the dialect of some texts, -\bar{\text{l}}, before falling, palatalized a preceding 1 (or 11), n (or nn), nd, at, or t: ann\(\bar{\text{l}}\) > anh, bell\(\bar{\text{l}}\) > beill, *infant\(\bar{\text{l}}\) > efanh, *spirit\(\bar{\text{l}}\) > esperih, mund\(\bar{\text{l}}\) > monh. See Rom., XXXIV, 353.
- 2. In the extreme east there are traces of final -ōs: aquestos, ellos, tantos.
- 3. Grau for gra < gradum, niu for ni < nīdum are Catalan. Amiu for amic < amīcum, chastiu for chastic < castīgo belong to the dialect of Forez, and point to a very early fall of the guttural in that dialect. Cf. § 65, D, G.

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4. Aire, vaire, beside air < aërem, vair < varium, probably show the influence of the numerous nouns in -aire (amaire, etc.); cf. § 52, (1). Fores beside fors < föris, nemes beside nems < nimis, senes beside sens < sine probably developed the e when the next word began with a consonant: see § 62, (3). For colbe, see § 48, 1. Reide rede perhaps owes its -e to rege: § 49, (1). Beside volp < vülpem there is a volpe.

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- 5. Coma, beside com, con, co < quōmb(do), apparently owes its -a to the analogy of the adverbs bona and mala and other adverbs of manner. For a different explanation, see J. Vising in the Tobler Festschrift (Abhandlungen Herrn Prof. Dr. Tobler dargebracht, 1895), p. 113.
- 6. E seems to have been inserted in the second person singular of some verbs, to distinguish it from the third person: $co(g)n\bar{o}scis \not < co$ noisses, $co(g)n\bar{o}scit > conois$.
- 52. When the fall of the vowel would have resulted in an undesirable consonant group at the end of a word, the vowel was retained as an indistinct e: dubito>dopte, lucrum>logre.

The principal groups that call for a supporting vowel are:

* For experience of lor-, nee Recide Ling no ins, hos 5-6, H1.47, 65

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(1) a consonant and a liquid; (2) a labial and a dental; (3) in proparoxytones, a consonant and a c' or c originally separated by the vowel of the penult; (4) in proparoxytones, a consonant and an m or n originally separated by the vowel of the penult. Ex.: inter>entre; aptum>apte; *dodecim>dotze, jūdico>iütge; *Jacomus>Iacmes, asinum>asne.

If the word was a paroxytone, and the first consonant was a palatal and the second an r, the supporting vowel stood between the two: major> maier, mělior> melher, můlier> molher, pějor> peier, sěnior> senher. Otherwise the supporting vowel followed the consonant group.

The four classes of groups (aside from the palatal + r just mentioned) will now be examined in detail:—

(1) Examples: alter > autre, Carolus > Carles, duplus > dobles, * ĕssĕre > estre, fabrum > fabre, * mĕr(ŭ) lum > merle, nöster > nostre, pauper > paubre, pop(ŭ) lum > poble, ponere > ponre, recipere > recebre, rumpere > rompre, tollere > tolre, volvěre > volvre; mascůlum > mascle, etc.; flēb(i)lem > freble, etc. Under this head is included r-r (currere>corre, quærere > querre), but not ll and rr (bellum > bel, ferrum > fer). In Provençal the first element was often changed, later than the 8th century, into a vowel, original b and v becoming u, and d, t, c, g, and y being turned to i: bibere > beure, scriběre > escriure, * mověre > moure, plověre > ploure, vivěre > viure; latro > laire, matrem > maire, radere > raire, * rīdere > rire, vitrum > veire; desidero > desire, etc.; amātor > amaire, servitor > servire, etc.; dīcere > dire, dūcere > düire, facere > faire, gractlem > graile, *tacere > taire; frigere > frire, weigaro = recept, gaire, legere > leire; bajulum > baile. Apparent exceptions to the rule are intervocalic cl, gl, which were probably reduced to single consonants before the 8th century: $\delta c(\tilde{u}) lum > 0lh$, vig(i)lo > velh.

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- I. The rare forms frair, mair, pair, Peir (still used in Gascony), beside regular fraire, maire, paire, Peire, are probably due to proclitic use; so sor beside sorre < soror, and possibly faur beside faure < faber. The learned albir = albire < arbitrium may be due to the analogy of other double forms. Dimerc for dimercre (§ 17, 2) perhaps follows dimenc.
- 2. Rr requires a vowel in a few dialects: corre = cor < currit, ferre = fer < ferrum, torre = tor < turrem.
- (2) Examples: căbštum > code; cômštem > comte; dēbštum > depte deute, § 47, (3); dômnum > domne; dūbšto > dopte; hõspštem > oste; sabbātum > sapte.
- 1. Asaut seems to be post-verbal from asautar < adaptāre. Escrit < scrīptum shows the influence of dit < dīctum. Malaut, beside malaute malapte < mal'habitum, is reconstructed from the feminine malauta on the model of aut, auta. Set < sēptem must have developed as a proclitic.
- (3) Examples: jūdicem > iütge¹; pŏllicem > pouze; quīndēcim>quinze; salicem > sauze; sēdēcim > sedze;—canŏnīcum >
 canonge canorgue,² § 49, (4); clērīcum > clerge clergue (§ 4%, 7)

 \$\frac{1}{2}\$, mēdīcum > metge; mŏnāchum > monge mongue morgue,²
 \$ 49, (4); vīndīco > venie; viatīcum > viatge, etc.
 - 1. The forms poutz, sautz, beside pouze, sauze, would seem to indicate that lc' did not require a supporting vowel in all dialects.
 - 2. *Ficotum (=jēcur), a fusion of συκωτόν ('fig-fattened') and fīcus, combined with *hēpāte (= hēpar), became *fécatu *fecitu *fegidu, and then, through the influence of the familiar ending -igu (= lcum), *fedigu >fetge. See G. Paris in Miscellanea linguistica in onore di G. Ascoli, 1901, p. 41; H. Schuchardt in Zs., XXV, 615, and XXVIII, 435; L. Clédat in Revue de philologie française et de littérature, XV, 235. Pege, for peich <pēctus, seems to be due to the analogy of fetge.
 - (4) Examples: astimo > esme; decimum > desme; fraxinum > fraisne; incūdinem > enclütge (cf. § 80, Dn); *met-tpsimum > medesme; pēssimum > pesme; proximus > prosmes.

¹ The tg in this word is probably due to the influence of iutiar < jūdīcāre.

² The forms with r may be due to dissimilation or to the influence of *clergue*,

- 1. Faim < factmu(s) doubtless lost its -e through the analogy of the alternative form fazem < *factmu(s) and of the usual endings -am, -em.
- (5) In some dialects, at least, by, mby, mny, py, rny required a supporting vowel: rŭbeum>rotge, cambio>camie, sŏmnium> songe suenh, apium> ache api, *Arvĕrnium¹> Alvernhe; ratge (= rabiem) is probably French. Original lm, rm, sm required a supporting vowel in some dialects but not in others: hëlm>elme elm, ŭlmum>olme olm, palmum> palm; *ĕrmum (ĕρημον)> erm, firmum>ferm, gĕrmen> germe; spasmum> espasme.
- (6) Many verbs regularly have an —e in the first person singular of the present indicative: desire, dopte, iütge, etc. By the analogy of these, —e often appears in the first person singular of verbs which need no supporting vowel: remīro > remir remire. By the analogy of the preterit (águi, füi, etc.), —i is very often substituted for this —e: azor azori, cant canti, pretz prezi, etc.
- 53. Many late words preserve the final vowel as $-\epsilon$: benigne, bisbe $<\epsilon\rho isc\delta\rho um$, digne (cf. denhar), mixte (cf. mest), regne (cf. reing), signe (cf. senh). Cf. § 50; (for colbe) § 48, 1; and (for coinde, etc.) § 47, 1. Learned formations from nouns in -ium usually end in -i, simply dropping the -um: capitoli, edifici, emperi, iüzizi, martiri (martire), negoci, offci, periüri, remezi, servizi, vici. Similar forms in -i were sometimes taken from the accusative of nouns and adjectives in -ius: Boeci < Boëthium, propri (propre) < proprium, savi < sabium.
- 1. It should be remembered that the Latin words, at the time of their adoption, had undergone various phonetic changes in the clerical pronunciation: cf. § 15. A form *remezi*, for instance, presupposes a pronunciation of *remědium* as $reme\delta$ iu(m).

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¹ Alvernia is attested: cf. Zs., XXVI, 123. The usual form is Arvernicum.

3. CONSONANTS.

54. The Latin consonants which we have to consider are: b, c (= k), d, f, g, h, j (= y), l, m, n, p, qu (= kw), r, s, t, v (= w), x (= ks). To these we must add the Vulgar Latin w coming from u, and y coming from e, i: see § 40, (2). Furthermore, in words borrowed from Germanic dialects we find b, ∂ , h, k, p, w, which call for special notice; and, in words borrowed from Greek, ch, k, ph, th, z.

The Latin d, f, j, l, p, t call for no remark at present. Latin h, in popular speech, became silent very early $(\hbar \delta c > \delta c, \hbar \delta mo > \delta mo)$, and, although an attempt was made to restore it in polite speech, it left no trace in the Romance languages: cf. Rom., XI, 399. Double consonants were pronounced distinctly longer than single ones: annus, ille, ŏssum, těrra.

55. Latin b, c, g, m, n, qu, r, s, v, w, x, y show the following developments in popular Latin speech:—

B between vowels became, through failure to close the lips tightly, β (bilabial v), from the 1st to the 3d century of our era: $habere > a\beta$ ere. The same change took place, to a certain extent, when the b was not intervocalic, but we have few, if any, traces of it in Provençal. Between vowels, even in learned words, the clerical pronunciation was probably β or v until the 7th century. Cf. V.

C before a front vowel (e, i), as early as the 3d century, doubtless had, in nearly all the Empire, a front or palatal articulation; that is, it was formed as close as possible to the following vowel¹: $c\check{e}ntum > c\check{e}ntu$, $d\bar{u}c\check{e}re > d\bar{u}c\check{e}re$. The next step was the introduction of an audible glide, a brief y, between the c' and the vowel²: c'yentu, duc'yere. By the

¹ Compare, in English, the c of coo and the k of key.

³ Compare the old-fashioned pronunciation of words like card, kind.

5th century this c'y had developed into a kind of ty, the c'having been drawn still further forward: t'yentu dut'yere. Through a modification of the y-glide, the group then became, in the 6th or 7th century, tš or ts: tšentu tsentu. See H. Schuchardt, Voc., I, 151, and Ltblt., XIV, 360; P. E. Guarnerio, in Supplementi all'Archivio glottologico italiano, IV (1897), pp. 21-51 (cf. Rom., XXX, 617); G. Paris, in the Journal des savants, 1900, 359, in the Annuaire de l'École pratique des Hautes-Études, 1893, 7, in the Comptes rendus des séances de l'Académie des Inscriptions, 1893, 81, and in Rom., XXXIII, 322; W. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., pp. 123-126; F. G. Mohl, Zs., XXVI, 595; P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 51-53; W. Meyer-Lübke, in Bausteine sur romanischen Philologie, 313. Cf. G and X.1

G between vowels, before the accent, disappeared in some words in at least a part of the Empire: $le(g)\bar{a}lis$, $li(g)\bar{a}men$, $re(g)\bar{a}lis$, (realis is attested for the 8th century); ego, generally used as a proclitic, everywhere lost its g; on the other hand, g was kept in castigāre, fatigāre, ligāre, negāre, pagānus. G before a front vowel (e, i), by the 1st or 2d century, was pronounced g' (cf. C): gentem > g'ente, fragilis > frag'ilis. As early as the 4th century this g', through failure to form a close articulation, opened into y^2 : yente, frayilis. Before an accented e or i an intervocalic y disappeared, in the greater part of the Empire, being fused with the vowel: magister > mayister > maester, *pagēnsis > payesis > paesis, regīna > reyina > reina.\frac{1}{2}

M and n, when final, were weak and indistinct from the earliest times, except in monosyllables; by the 3d or 4th cen-

¹ For final -ci, -gi in plurals, see § 92, (2).

² Before this, frīgīdus had become frigdus in Italy and Gaul.

tury they had probably disappeared altogether from the end of polysyllables: damnu, nome; but jam, non.

N before spirants (f, j, s, v), except in the prefixes con— and in—, became silent during the Republican period, the preceding vowel, if it was short, being lengthened by compensation¹: $m\bar{e}(n)sis$, $p\bar{e}(n)sare$. If the syllable con— or in— was not recognized as a prefix, the n fell: co(n)sul, co(n)ventum, i(n)fas. In learned and newly constructed words the n was pronounced. Cf. M.

Qu, gu before o or u were reduced to c, g in the 1st or 2d century: see W.

R before s, in a number of words, became s in the Republican period: deōrsum>deōssum, dŏrsum>dŏssum, sūrsum> sūssum; so, in a part of the Empire, pĕrsīca> pĕssīca, vĕrsus (preposition)> vĕssus. Early in our era ss after a long vowel was reduced to s: deōsu, sūsu.

S was probably always voiceless, or surd, in classic Latin, but became voiced between vowels, in Gaul, at the end of the Vulgar Latin period: casa. To initial s + consonant an i or e was prefixed, at first, no doubt, after a word ending in a consonant: in schŏla > in iscŏla; this process began in the 2d century and had become general by the 4th.

V, originally pronounced w, became β probably in the 1st century: $v\bar{v}v\bar{e}re > \beta\bar{\imath}\beta\bar{e}re$. Before u, v regularly disappeared, but it was restored by analogy in many words: favus > faus, $\bar{o}vum > \delta um$, $r\bar{\imath}vus > r\bar{\imath}us$; but also $\bar{o}vum$, $r\bar{\imath}vus$, by the analogy of ova, rivi. In the greater part of the Empire v apparently fell also before an accented o: $pav\bar{o}nem > pa\bar{o}ne$, $pav\bar{o}rem > pa\bar{o}re$. Cf. W. When a β , representing either b or v,



¹ It is natural to suppose that the n, in falling, nasalized the vowel; but no trace of this nasality remains.

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became contiguous to a following consonant, it changed to u: lwm>*flwen* avica>aβica>auca, gabăta>gaβata>gauta, * flavitat>fla-In several words rv became rb in Latin: ver-Bĭtat > flautat. vēcem > berbēce berbīce, corvus > corbus, curvus > curbus.

W coming, in the 2d or 3d century, from u (§ 40) differed from Latin v, then pronounced β , but was probably identical with Germanic w: debui > debwi, placui > placwi sapuit > sapwit, těnuis > tenwis. W fell between a consonant and o or u: antiquus > anticus, battuo > batto, carduus > cardus, coquus > cocus, distinguo > distingo, mortuus > mortus; so eccu'hoc> Pr. aco. Cf. Qu.

X (=ks) was reduced to s, in the 2d or 3d century, before a consonant or at the end of a word of more than one syllable: sestus, senes; but sex. So the prefix ex->es- before any consonant but s: *exgaudēre > Pr. esiauzir, *exlucēre & Pr. esluzir, *exmittere > Pr. esmetre; excernere > *escernire > Pr. eissernir. Ex- + s apparently became either ex- or ess-: *exsanguinātum > Pr. eissancnat, *exsaritāre > Pr. eissartar, *exsěquěre > Pr. essegre, *exsůrgěre > Pr. essorger, *exsūcāre > Pr. eissügar essügar.

Y coming, in the 2d or 3d century, from e or i, (§ 40) coincided with Latin j: habeam > abya, eamus > yamus, teneat > tenyat; audio > audyo, fīlia > filya, vēniat > venyat. early as the 4th century the groups dy, gy were reduced to y; and ly, ny probably became l', n': mědius > medyus > meyus, corrigia > corrigya > correya; mělior > melyor > mel'or, tèneo > tenyo > ten'o.

56. Germanic b, δ , h, k, p, w call for special mention:— B did not participate in the change of Latin intervocalic b to β : roubôn > Pr. raubar. The words containing it were evidently adopted after this phonetic law had ceased to operate.

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ð, þ were pronounced by the Latins as d, t: *waiðanjan> *wadanyāre> Pr. gazanhar (It. guadagnare), prescan> *trescāre > Pr. trescar. H.G. Wrotta

> rota ireth>froc

H, at the beginning of a word, was lost in the greater part of the Empire, including southern Gaul: hapja>*apya>Pr. H between vowels was lost in some words and replaced by kk in others: spëhôn>Pr. espiar, fëhu>Pr. feu; about jehan > * yekkire > Pr. gequir. Ht was regularly replaced by tt: slahta>*sclatta> Pr. esclata; but wahta, perhaps borrowed at a different period, became Pr. gaita. also gacha; no gachar quila

K, in southern Gaul, did not take the palatal pronunciation before front vowels: skërnon > Pr. esquernir, skina > Pr. esquina, skiuhan > Pr. esquivar, *rîk-îtia > Pr. riqueza; only the derivatives of Franko (doubtless Latinized early) show palatalization, as *Francia > Pr. Fransa. G, however, seems to have been palatalized: giga > Pr. giga, geisla > Pr. giscle. Before a, in words introduced early, k and g were treated like Latin c and g: kausjan > Pr. cauzir chauzir, gâhi > Pr. gai jahe iai; see § 11, (1).

W was vigorously pronounced, and, through reinforcement of its velar element, came to be sounded gw: warjan> * warire gwarīre > Pr. garir, wërra > *werra gwerra > Pr. guerra.
In a few names w > 0 : Boldwin > Baldwin eginnward > Grimwart hudwig > Fozoic

57. Greek ζ , θ , κ , ϕ , χ did not exactly correspond to any Latin consonants: -

Z, whatever may have been its original pronunciation, received in Vulgar Latin the value dy, which then, like any other dy, became y: *zelōsus (from $\zeta \hat{\eta} \lambda_{0s}$) = dyelosus yelosus > Pr. gelos. The infinitive ending -i(cuv, introduced in such words as βαπτίζειν > baptizāre = bapti(d)yāre, became very common in the form -idyare -iyare, and was used to make

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new verbs: werra + ίζων > * werridyare gwerriyare > Pr. guerreiar.

- θ , in the popular speech of Rome, was replaced by t: similarly χ was replaced by $c: \sigma \pi a \theta \dot{\eta} > spatha = spata; \chi o \rho \delta \dot{\eta}$ > chŏrda = corda.
- k was apparently intermediate in sound between Latin c and g; it was generally replaced by the former, but sometimes, by the latter: κατά > cata, κυβερναν > gubernare. κόλη ος > golfe κάμηη > gunto
- φ, in Greek, was in early times (perhaps until the 4th century of our era) a strongly explosive p; it then developed In words borrowed by the Romans in the early peri- $\pi_f \stackrel{\checkmark}{\star}_{77} : |\gamma\rangle$ into f. od it was replaced by p; in later words it was sounded f: κόλαφος > cŏlăphus = colapus, φασίολος > phaseŏlus faseŏlus.
 - 58. The fate of all these consonants in Provençal depended largely on their position in the word: we must therefore distinguish initial, medial, and final consonants. general way, the first tended to remain unchanged, the second to weaken, the third to disappear. Furthermore we must separate single consonants from consonant groups: the latter resisted change better than the former; but a group consisting of dissimilar elements tended to assimilate them.

INITIAL CONSONANTS.

59. A consonant preceded by a prefix was treated as an initial consonant as long as the character of this preceding syllable was recognized: de-cadere > decazer, de-pingere > depenher, præ-parāre > preparar, re-cordāre > recordar, repatriāre > repairar, re-pausāre > repausar, se-dūcere > sedüire. If, however, the initial syllable ceased to be recognized as a prefix, the following consonant was treated as a medial con-



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sonant: prapositum > prebost, retorta > redorta; so, perhaps, profundum > preon. The rare rebonre (beside reponre) < re-ponère has the special sense 'to bury'.

SINGLE INITIAL CONSONANTS.

mahomet > Bahonet, so Kuhemaria

60. B, d, l, m, n, p, r, s, t underwent no change: ben, don, loc, me, nau, pauc, rius, si, tü.

\$\$ 53,76 Celt in the? (Trine lie), 1. For cremetar < *tremitare, see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., \$ 194. For wife of these fitting?

but meshingranolha < *ranucula, see Körting, ranuculus. mes, our

caura

61. C, c', f, g, g', β , y suffered some change. C, g must be distinguished from c', g': § 55, C, G.

C, g before o, u remained unchanged: colorem > color, cūra qui catto > cura; gula > gola, gutta > gota. Before a they changed only in the north and northeast, where they became (perhaps from the 7th to the 9th century) respectively tš and dž: campus > camps champs; gaudēre > gauzir iauzir.

C'>ts, which just before and during the literary period was reduced to s: cælum > cel sel, cīvitātem > ciutat ciptat siptat. For g', see Y.

Y, comprising Latin dy, g', gy, j, and z, became dž (except in Béarn, where it remained y): diurnālem > iornal (yornal), $de\bar{o}(r)sum > ios; g\check{e}lus > gels, gentilem > gentil (yentil), g\bar{y}r\bar{a}re$ > girar; jam > ia, jocum > ioc (yoc), juvenem > iove; *zelosus > gelos.

F remained unchanged, except in Béarn and a part of Gascony, where it became h: famem > fam ham, fidem > fehe, focum > foc hüc, folia > fuelha huelha.

β> v (the dentilabial spirant), except in Béarn, Gascony, and parts of Languedoc, where it became b: věnit > ven be, *věntum* > vent bent, *věrsus* (§ 55, R) > ves bes, $v\bar{o}s$ > vos bos.

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1. In a few words β , owing to Germanic influence, was replaced by w > gw: vadum + watan > gua, vastare + wbst > guastar. So $vag\bar{v}na > guaína$, Vasconia > Gasconha. Cf. gw below.

INITIAL GROUPS.

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- 62. There are three classes of groups: those ending in 1 or r, those ending in w, and those beginning with s: —
- (1) Bl, br, cl, cr, dr, gl, gr, pl, pr, tr underwent no change: blasphemāre > blasmar, brēvem > breu, clarus > clars, crūcem > crotz, drappus > draps, glaciem > glatz, gradum > gra, plēnum > plen, precāre > pregar, trans > tras. Gras is from grassus, a fusion of crassus and grossus. For grocs < κρόκος see § 57, κ.
- (2) Gw (Germanic w) and kw (Latin qu) were reduced, perhaps in the 10th century, to g and k, except in the west, where the w was retained: wahta > gaita guaita, warjan > garir guarir, wërra > gerra guerra, wīsa > gisa guisa; quando > can quan, quare > car quar. It should be noted that the u was commonly kept in the spelling (especially before e and i) after it had ceased to be pronounced, gu and qu being regarded merely as symbols for "hard" g and c. For cinc < quīnque, see § 87, kw. Sw remained in suavem > suau.
- (3) To groups beginning with s a vowel had been prefixed in Vulgar Latin (§ 55, S); this vowel appears in Provençal as e. Sc' apparently did not occur in any popular word; sl early became scl; the other groups (sc, scl, scr, sp, st, str) remained unchanged, except that in the north and northeast sc > stš before a: scala > escala eschala, schöla > escola, slahta > * sclatta > esclata, scrībēre > escriure, spīna > espina, slare > estar, strīngēre > estrenher.

MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

- 63. (1) It is well to note at the outset that when, through the fall of an unaccented vowel (§ 51), an early Provençal b, d, dz, dž, g, z, or ž was made final or contiguous to a final s, it became voiceless: ŏpus>obus>obs ops, ŏrbum>orbu>orb opp: datum>dadu>dad dat, vīrīdem vīrdem>verde>verde vert; prētium> predzu> predz prets (written pretz), vōcem> vodze> vodz vots (written votz); mēdium> meyu medžu> medž metš (written meg or mech); amīcus> amigus> amigs amics, largum> largu> larg larc; rīsum> rizu> riz ris; basium> bažu> baiž baiš (bais). The combination tšs, however, loses either its second or its third element: *gaudios> gautšs> gautš or gauts (both of them often written gaugz); so nōctes> nuetšs> nuetš or nuets (nuegz). For local variations of g, see (6). For apud> ab ap am an, see § 65, P, 2.
- (2) Under the same conditions, y became i: video > veyo > vey vei, pějus > peyus > peys pieis.
- (3) Under the same conditions, δ , coming from intervocalic d, fell when final, but became t before s: $audit > au\delta$ i $> au\delta$ au; $cr\bar{u}dus > cru\delta$ us > cruds cruds. So $cr\bar{u}dum > cr\bar{u}$, fidem > fe, fraudem > frau, gradum > gra, $n\bar{u}dum > ni$, $n\bar{o}dum > no$, $p\bar{e}dem > pe$, sapidum > sabe, $t\bar{e}pidum > tebe$; grados > grats, $n\bar{o}dus > nots$, $n\bar{u}dus > nuts$, $p\bar{e}des > pets$. The two sets of forms influenced each other: hence degras, fes, nis, pes, etc.; crut, grat, not, nut, not, n
- (4) Under the same conditions, β , coming from v or from intervocalic b, became u if preceded by a vowel, but fell if preceded by a consonant: $bibit > be\beta i > be\beta$ beu, $v\bar{i}vit > \beta i\beta i > \beta i\beta$ viu, $claves > cla\beta es > cla\beta s$ claus, $v\bar{i}vus > \beta i\beta us > \beta i\beta us > \beta i\beta us$

¹ Fes, nut, which quite supplanted the regular forms, perhaps show the influence of res, mut.

 β i β s vius; salvet > sal, salvum > sal, servit > sier, neros > sers, salvus > sals, servus > sers. Sometimes, however, final β preceded by a consonant, instead of falling, became f: salvet > salf, salvum > salf, servit > sierf, volvit > volf; it may be that these are the only regular forms for cons. $+\beta$ when final, and that sal, sier are due to the analogy of sals, siers.

(5) Under the same conditions, final n, if preceded by a vowel, was kept in the extreme west, parts of the north, and all the southeast and east, but fell everywhere else; n before s was generally kept only in the southeast and east: bēne> be ben, canem> ca can, sōnum> so son¹; bōnus> bos bons, mansiōnes> maisos maisons. In minus> mens the n was kept, perhaps through the analogy of menor. If the n was preceded by a consonant (r), the fall seems to have been even commoner: cōnu> cor corn, tōno> tor torn; diūnnus> iors iorns. For iornh< diūnni, see § 51, 1. Provençal n coming from nn never falls: annus> ans.

ر(۱۹)

- (6) Under the same conditions, g, representing original c or g, became c after o or u, and after other vowels either became c or was changed to i (which fused with a preceding i): focum > foc, locus > locs, paucum > pauc, Hūgo > Uc; Aureliācum > Aurelhac, dīco > dic di, Henrīcum > Enric Enri, *trago > trac trai. The forms with c are the commoner; they have been most persistent in the west.
- (7) The vocalization of 1 before s (malus > maus) is a different phenomenon from the foregoing. See § 65, L.
- (8) An m or an n that becomes contiguous to final s often develops into mp or nt, but oftener (judging from the spellings) does not: nimis > nems nemps; annos > ans anz.

¹ By analogy of such double forms, n is sometimes added to a few words ending in a vowel: füit > fo fon, prō > pro pron.

- (9) Between a liquid or a nasal and a final s, a b or a p generally fell, unless supported by the analogy of a form in which the b or p was final: ambos > ams ambs, cŏrpus > cors, tĕmpus > tems temps; cf. balbs (balb), orbs (orb).
- 1. The d, n, t of the proclitics ad, quid, in, aut, et will be treated under Final Consonants.
- 64. Final ts from any source, in Provence, Limousin, and a part of Languedoc and Gascony, was reduced, during the literary period, to s: amātis>amatz amas, habētis>avetz aves, dīcit>ditz dis, grandes>granz grans, latus>latz las, prētium>pretz pres. On the other hand, in a part of Limousin (especially in Limoges), and also in Dauphiné, -ts, in the second person plural of verbs, became t: habētis>avet.

SINGLE MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

65. The single medial consonants will now be considered separately, in alphabetical order: —

 β , coming from b or v, became v; except in the west and a part of the centre, where, if it remained intervocalic, it changed to b: $hab\bar{e}tis$ > avetz abetz, $deb\bar{e}re$ > dever deber, faba> fava faba; $av\bar{a}rum$ > avar, $ast\bar{v}va$ > estiva, $br\bar{e}vem$ > breu, clavem> clau, $d\bar{v}ellovem$ > diious, $l\bar{e}vat$ > leva, $nov\bar{e}lla$ > novela nabera (Gascon), $v\bar{v}vus$ > vius. When the preceding or following vowel was o or u, a β before the accent fell in most dialects, being fused with the vowel: $ab\bar{u}ndare$ > aondar abondar, $g\bar{u}b\bar{e}rnare$ > goernar governar, proclitic $u\bar{v}b\bar{v}ellovem$ > proar; $s\bar{u}b\bar{v}nde$ > soen soven soben, $tr\bar{v}b\bar{u}tum$ > treut; $L\bar{u}dov\bar{v}cus$ > Lozoics, $Prov\bar{v}ncia$ > Proensa Provensa, $nov\bar{e}llum$ > noel novel, $nov\bar{e}mbrem$ > poembre novembre, $pav\bar{v}ellovem$ > paon, $pav\bar{v}ellovem$ > paor (cf. § 55, V).

¹ Cf. § 63, (4).

- The perfect endings -avi etc., -ivi etc. had lost their v in Latin. For avia, etc., see § 87, β.
- 2. Abans, beside avanz, avan < ab ante, apparently shows the influence of Pr. ab=apud. Abet < abiètem (§ 40, 1) is unexplained: cf. Italian abete. Abora is a Provençal compound of ab and ora. Trap, beside trau < trabem, is doubtless from the nominative traps < trabs, which seems to have been differentiated in meaning from the V. L. nominative trabis.
- 3. Brey, grey, ney, beside breu < brevem, greu < *grevem, neu < nëvem (cf. § 25, 1, e), have been subjected to the attraction of grey < gregem, ley < legem. Greug is a post-verbal noun from greuiar < *greviare.
 - 4. Natis = natius < natīvus seems to have been influenced by mestis < mixtīcius. Massis is from *massīcius.
 - 5. Paziment = pavamen owes its z perhaps to the analogy of aizimen.
 - 6. In purely learned words, b and v were written as in Latin: diabol, diluvi.

C, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to g, and then developed like any other g. See G.

- 1. After au, apparently, c did not change: *auca (<*avica < avis)> auca, pauca > pauca, rauca > rauca, *traucare(?<*trabucare)> traucar. Cf. § 65, P, 3.
- In purely learned words, c remained unchanged: vocal. Alucar aluchar, aluc seem to be learned formations patterned after antelucānus and Low Latin lucānus.

C', when it became contiguous to a consonant, through the fall of the unaccented vowel of the penult, was reduced to i: cocere > coire, dicere > dire dire, dicetis > ditz, facere > faire, facemu(s) > faim, facetis > faitz, feceram > feira, fecerunt > feiron, gracelem > graile. When it remained intervocalic, it was assibilated during the transition period (§ 55, C); in most of the Provençal territory it became dz, which during the literary period was simplified to z; but in some dialects of the south and the northwest it resulted in idz (later iz), an i-glide having developed before the consonant while it was still palatal: aucellum > auzel, jacere > iazer, licere > lezer,

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lūcēre > lüzer lüzir lüisir, placēre > plazer plaizer; crūcem > croz croiz crois (see §§ 63, 64), dicere > dízer, dicit > ditz dis, dūcit> dütz düs, facit> fatz fas, jacet> iatz ias iays, pacem> patz pas pais, placet > platz plas plais, verācem? > verais, vōcem > votz voiz.

- 1. Aucel, beside auzel, perhaps belongs to a dialect in which c' was not voiced after au: cf. C, 1. See § 80, Bc'.
 - 2. Iasser, beside iaser, seems to be due to ias < jacet and iassa < jaceat.
 - 3. For desma deima, see S. I.
 - 4. In purely learned words, c'>ts: acidum> aci.

D, in a part of the west, remained unchanged; elsewhere, during the Vulgar Latin period, it opened into δ , which fell in the 11th century and earlier in parts of the north and east, and in the rest of the Provençal territory became z as early as the first part of the 12th century: audire > auzir auir audir, audit > au, cadit > ca, crudelem > cruzel cruel crudel, , ho com fīdat > fia, *gaudo > gau, horrida > oreza, horridum > ore,

laudo > lau, alauda > lauzeta laudeta, rīdat > ria, traděre > townga hard) trazir trair tradir, vidēre > vezer ver veder, videt > ve. When

- & became contiguous to a following consonant (except final s), it changed to i: dividere divire, traditorem traidor (which, influenced by trair, was pronounced traidor).4
- 1. Crey, beside cre < crēdo, follows dei < debeo, vei < video. Mercey, beside merce < mercedem, shows the influence of grey < gregem, lei < *lēgem*, and perhaps French fei < fidem. Cf. β , (3).
- 2. Grau = gra < gradum, $niu = ni < n\bar{i}dum$ belong to the Catalan dialect, in which δ fell before the 8th century: $gradum > gra\delta u > gra-u$ >grau, the u being preserved through combining into a diphthong with the a.

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Also auvir, probably a northern local development of auir; and aurir, doubt less from auxir in a dialect that confuses r and z. See R, 2 and S, 2.

² Cf. § 63, (3).

The i from f fuses with the preceding i.

Tracker has been influenced by track, past participle of traire.

3. In purely learned words, d remained: odi < odium.

F is very rare (cf. § 59). The few examples appear to show that f (presumably in the 6th century or earlier) became β , and then developed like any other β (see β): Stěphănum> Esteve, co(n) fortāre? > * co β ortar > * coortar > conortar (through the common use of the double forms, con—, co—), gryphum \Rightarrow griu, raphānum \Rightarrow rave rafe, * refusāre > rehusar refusar, * prefundum (= pro—)> preon. Nevertheless, cof in cophīnum, defors < de foris, grifo, profieg < profectum, rafe, would seem to indicate that in some words, possibly less popular at the outset, f was retained.

- 1. In purely learned words, f was kept: antifona, Caifas, philosophia.
- G, representing original c and g, had a varied development.¹ For the fall of g in some words in Vulgar Latin, see § 55, G.
- (1) Before a, g remained in the greater part of the territory, but in the north and east it early became y; and this y was generally retained in the eastern dialects (often fusing with a preceding i), while in most of the northern it developed into dž (cf. Y): amīca> amiga amiia amia, dīcam> diga dia, mīca> miga miia mia,² pacāre> pagar paiar, precāre> pregar preiar; castigāre> castigar castiar, legālem> leial leyal lial, ligāmen> liam, līgātum> legat liat, plaga> plaga plaia, regālem> reial, rūga> rüa.²
- (2) Before o and u (ü), g was preserved, except in a few words which (doubtless in Vulgar Latin times) lost it either win all or in many dialects: acūtum>agūt, secūndum>segon, secūrus> segūrs; *a(u)gūrium> agūr aūr, a(u)gūstum>



¹Intervocalic c and g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre, 1888, pp. 8-19. ² Mica micha are from *micca = mīca + cīccum.

 $^{^{\}rm s}$ Original Latin g seems more prone to fall than g < c.

agost ahost, proclitic ego > eu, *fagottum > fagot, figūra > figura, Hugonem > Ugo. For a g that becomes final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (6): amīcus > amics amis, Auri- $\bar{a}cum > \text{Auriac}, \ c\check{o}cum \ (= c\check{o}quum) > \text{coc}, \ j\check{o}cus > \text{iocs}, \ Ludo$ vīcum > Lozoic Lozoi, preco > prec; castīgo > chastic chasti.

rob. t beest (3) Between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, g, in many places; early in the Provençal period, became y, which developed actaticum into dž before the literary epoch; cf. § 49, (4): clěricum> termaticum have in diff. clerge, *coraticum > coratge, dominicum > dimenge, manica > focalities mania, mědicum > mege, monachum > monge, *paraticum > tš ts 4 paratge, viaticum > viatie. In some dialects, however, the dz dz n med. Pr. vowel of the penult, after liquids and nasals, fell too early for the g to become y: clergue,2 esta(t)ga, metgue, mongue.

wichi

I. Amiu, chastiu belong to the dialect of Forez; so perhaps fau < fagum, preu < preco. These forms indicate a very early fall of the g in the dialect to which they belong. Cf. § 51, 3. soul to free / square lour beam

2. In purely learned words, Latin g remains unchanged: paganōrum> paganor.

G' became y during the Vulgar Latin period (§ 55, G). See Y.

 In purely learned words the letter g was retained, but it was doubtless pronounced dž: astrologia.

L remained: colorem > color, male > mal, *volere (= velle) > voler. Before final s, I became u in most dialects, in some as early as the roth century: malos > maus, talis > taus; l was written, however, long after I had been vocalized. Under the influence of forms in which -ls > -us, final 1 became u in the southwest and in some other regions: Aprilem > abriu. Cf. § 74, (2). Au <-al is common in William of Poitiers.

¹ For the reduction of au to a see § 41.

² Clerc is from * clercum, which must have existed contemporaneously with clericum.

- 1. For Gascon l>r, see § 10.
- 2. Orifan, beside olifan < elephantem, is probably French.

L' will be considered, as ly, under Groups, § 73, Ly.

M remained: amāre > amar, homo > om, timorem > temor.

1. Occasionally -am rhymes with -an (afan: fam, portam: avan); this seems to show an indistinct pronunciation of the final nasal in some dialects. Cf. aven = avem < habemu(s) in the Nobla Leyczon. Cf. § 167, 2.

N remained: $b\check{o}nas > bonas$, $don\bar{a}re > donar$, $l\bar{u}na > l\bar{u}na$. For n final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (5): $f\bar{u}nis > fis$ fins, panem > pa pan.

1. In canorgue, dimergue, morgue, etc., beside canonge, dimenge, monge, etc., the r may be explained partly by dissimilation, partly by the analogy of clergue and of words with double forms (§ 87). A more and carbo known of a single and a single analogy and the single analogy are a single analogy.

2. Menhs meins, beside regular mens < minus, show the influence of the alternative forms genhs geins and gens from ingënium (see § 73, Ny).

3. Iassey (= iasse, the latter part of which may be from exin = exinde), tey (= te < tënet), used by Marcabru, are doubtless due either to a mistaken imitation of conventional borderland forms (see § 25, 3) or to the analogy of crei = cre < crēdo (crei itself being due to the analogy of dei < dēbeo, vei < video).

N' will be considered, as ny, under Groups, § 73, Ny.

P, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to b: capillum > cabel, rīpa > riba, *sapēre (= sapěre) > saber, trepalium > trebalh; capit > cap (§ 63), sapis > saps.

- 1. In some borderland dialects p > v, as in French: saver. Evescat, evesque, beside bisbat, bisbe, are French.
- 2. Apud, used as a proclitic, became for some reason in Vulgar Latin *apu, which developed regularly into *abu and, after the fall of intertonic vowels, ab. This ab assimilated its b more or less to a following consonant, becoming ap before voiceless consonants, am before nasals; am, used before dentals, became an: hence we have four forms, ab, ap, am, an. Amb perhaps developed first from am before l, as in am l'autre; when used before a consonant with which mb did not readily combine, it expanded into ambe. See Elise Richter, Zs., XXVI, 532; J. Huber, Zs., XXX, 583.

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- 3. In some dialects, apparently, p was not voiced after au: sapučrunt *sapwerunt *sauperunt > saubron saupron. Cf. § 65, C, I.
 - 4. In purely learned words, p remains: epifania.

R remained: amāra > amara, durāre > dürar, ĕrat > era. Final rs was reduced to s, in most dialects, during and after the literary period: priores > priors prios (Girart); the reduce marcana. tion apparently began in Limousin as early as the 12th century (Bertran de Born rhymes ios and flors).

- 1. Final r began to fall in many dialects in the 14th century. At present it has disappeared all through the south and west: amorem > amou, flörem > flou.
- 2. In some dialects (especially those of Gard and Hérault) intervocalic r and z were confused, probably during the literary period: gyrāre> girar gisar; conversely audīre > ausir aurir. Cf. Revue des langues romanes, XI, 49, 121. meridiana > meliana : trilina = Catar- Belinquier - Poi :-

S was voiced to z, probably from the 4th to the 6th century: pausa > pausa, presentem > presen; rīsum > ris (§ 63).

- 1. An s that became contiguous to n was changed, in a few dialects, to r: almosna almorna, disnar dirnar. In modern Limousin and some of the dialects of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Gascony, s has disappeared before nasals: asne ane, caresma carema, disnar dinar (so blasmar blamar, desma dema); the fall began during the literary period. S before a consonant in many of the modern dialects, and final s in some, has become i: asne aine, caresma careima (so perhaps desma deima, pruesme prueime); some traces of this change occur in texts of the literary period. Cf. Zs., XXIII, 413. Isla, in Limousin, became ilha (perhaps through iyla): ch main milit cf. Zs., XXIII, 414. Cf. § 78.
- 2. In some southeastern dialects intervocalic z after au has changed to v: causa cauva (so auzir auvir); possibly the auvent of the Boeci, v. 23, is to be connected with this.

T, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to d: amāta > amada, natālis > nadals, servitorem > servidor; habētis > avetz aves avet (§§ 63, 64), latus > latz las, natum > nat. For a t which became contiguous to r (amātor > amaire), see § 52, (1), and § 70, Tr.

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PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

[\$ 65

1. In some dialects of the south and southeast, final t fell shortly after the literary period: amātum > amat ama. — Appoestat is French. he Art Alo

2. Tōtus, in Gaul, became tōttus as early as the 4th century: hence Pr. tota totas. For meteis < met-tpse see § 131, (2).

3. Espaza (beside espada) < spatha, was perhaps influenced in its pronunciation by the spelling of the Latin word. 1 Ez, coming from et before a vowel, shows the influence of az (< ad + vowel) and quez (< quid + vowel) vowel). Grazal, 'grail', is perhaps a cross between *cratella < crater and gradale, 'service-book'; so grazalet. Grazir grazire (cf. agradar) is perhaps altered from an earlier *grazar < *gratiare. Mezeis < met-tpse, mezesmes, meesmes (beside medesmes) < *met-ipsimus have been subjected posaci infl. to the analogy of ez < et and quez < quid or of id ipsum: § 131, (2).

vis

via

4. In some dialects ti became a sound written h: peccati > peccah. See § 51, 1.

5. In purely learned words, t remains: eternal.

W will be considered, as gw, under Groups, § 72, β w.

X is a symbol for ks: see Groups, § 79, Ks.

Y, representing Latin dy, g', gy, j, and z (cf. § 55, G, Y; § 57, Z) had a varied development.

- (1) When it became contiguous to a following consonant (§§ 45, 49), it changed to i: adjutare > ayudare > ay'dar > aidar, medietatem > meitat; cogitare > cuidar, frigere > frire, legere > legre, propaginem > probaina, rigida > reida, * tragere > traire; bajŭlus > bailes.
- (2) When it remained intervocalic, it became dž in most of the territory, but in the northeast and parts of the north it was not changed: audiam > auia, in-odiare > enoiar, invidia > enveia, invidiosus > enveios enveyos, * gladia > glaya, mediānum > meian, *podiāre > poiar, radiāre > raiar, sordidior > sordeier, videat > veia; fragilem > fragel; *exagiāre > assatiar essaiar essayar, corrigia > correia correya, fagea > faia faya,

² See Zs., XXXII, 434.

54

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¹ Possibly it comes from N. Greek σπάδη: cf. Romanische Forschungen, XV, 880.

55

regionem > reio; die Jovis > diious, major > maier, pejor > pieier, pejorem > peior, troja > troja ; baptizāre > bateiar. a dž or a y that became final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (1), (2): audio > auch, in ŏdio > enueg (plural enuetz enueg) enoi, gaudium > gauch, gladium > glai, mědium > meg > hable mei, hodie > oi, podium > pueg poi, radium > rai; fugit > füg füi, gregem > grey, legem > leg (pl. leitz) lei, legit > lieg, magis mais, rēgem > rei, exagium > essai; pėjus > pieis.

- (3) Before accented e or i, y disappeared (doubtless in Vulgar Latin: § 55, G), except in some western dialects, where it became dž: vagīna > guaïna, * legīre (= legere)> legir, magister maiestre magestre, page(n) massis magestre, paes pages, regina > reina, sagitta > saeta saieta sageta.
- 1. Detz ditz < digitus are irregular and unexplained. The word is irregular in some other Romance languages, notably in Italian. Cf. Gröber's Grundriss, I, p. 507.
- 2. Glavi, beside glai (and learned glazi) < gladium, is supposed by some to show the influence of Celtic cládibo. Cf. Körting; also H. Schuchardt, Zs., XXV, 345.
- 3. Messér seems to be a contraction (due to proclitic use) of *messeyer = mes, 'my', + *seyer? < *seyor = senior (cf. A. Lindström, L'analogie dans la déclinaison des substantifs latins en Gaule, 1897-8, pp. 292-3).
- 4. In purely learned words, di, g, gi, s are retained, the g being pronounced presumably as dž, the s as z: odi, fragil, regio, canonizar.

MEDIAL GROUPS.

66. Medial groups may be conveniently classified as follows: — A. Double Consonants (1); B. Groups of Dissimilar Consonants: groups ending in 1 (2), groups ending in r'(3), groups ending in w (4), groups ending in y (5), groups

¹ Magis was probably reduced to mais in Vulgar Latin.

²Legir may have been reconstructed on the basis of leg < ligit.

beginning with l, m, n, r, or s and not ending in l, r, w, or y (6), all other groups (7). This order will be followed.¹

1. It should be noted that the prefixes ad-, sub- regularly assimilate their d or b to the following consonant: *ad-rīpāre > arribar, sub-venīre > sovenir. Sosrire, sosterrar, sostraire show a substitution of prefix, due, no doubt, to the analogy of sospirar, sostener.

I. DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

- 67. In general, the double consonants became single, in the 9th or 10th century (perhaps earlier before the accent), but underwent no other change save those described in §§ 63, 64: abbātem > abat, siccum > sec, reddo > ret, affībulāre > afiblar, aggregāre > agregar, flamma > flama, pinna > pena, cappa > capa, passum > pas, muttum > mot, advenire *avvenīre > avenir.
- (1) Cc before a, in the east and northeast, became ts; elsewhere, c; $b\bar{u}cca > boca bocha$, vacca > vaca vacha.
- (2) Ll, in some southern dialects, became l'; elsewhere, l: capillum > cabel cabelh, gryllum > gril grilh, mantellum > mantel mantelh, villānus > vilas vilhas. It is possible, however, that -llī regularly became l' in Limousin, while ll before other vowels was not palatalized: caballum > caval, caballi > cavalh; illi>ilh, illos>els; this would account in part for the frequent occurrence of th in the poems. So in some dia lects -nni>n': anni>anh. Cf. § 51, 1. For final Is and I, see § 65, L: illos > els eus, vallem > val vau. For Gascon 1 ego " ly troub. It not best LXC fr. CXE
 - (3) Rr, when intervocalic, seems generally to have been distinguished from r during the literary period and later: cur-

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>r, see § 10: appëllat> apela apera.

¹ For the groups ending in y, cf. L. J. Juroszek, Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der jotazierten Konsonanten in Frankreich, in Zs., XXVII, 550 ff. The groups ending in y and those containing c or g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre, 1888.

² S is generally written ss between vowels, to distinguish it from s = z.

word

rère > corre, *corrùptiare > corrossar, errare > errar, tèrra > terra. Occasionally, however, rr is found in rhyme with r.

2. GROUPS ENDING IN L.

68. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that bl, rl, sl remained unchanged; ml developed a glide consonant between its two members; pl, tl, β l and yl respectively voiced, assimilated, and vocalized their first element; while cl, gl were fused into l'. For an explanation of this last phenomenon, see § 79.

Bl>bl: něbůla> nebla, * oblitare> oblidar, sabulonem> sablon. 1 feble sabla extable (Ababulum a stabilum

 β l>ul: $fabŭla *fa\beta la$ > faula, $sibil\bar{a}re *si\beta l\bar{a}re$ > siular, $tabŭla *ta\beta la$ > taula.

Cl>l': genŭcŭlum> genolh, ŏcŭlum> olh, sitŭla *sicla²> selha, vĕtŭla vĕcla²> velha. In learned words we find gl, cl: *e(c)clēsia> gleiza, joculārem> ioglar, sæcŭlum> segle secle.

C1>il: gracilem > graile.

Dl>dl, which during the literary period became ll and then l: modulum>*modle molle.

Gl>l': rēgūla>relha, *strigūla>estrelha, vig(i)lat>velha. Leula < lėgūla, teula < tēgūla are irregular: cf. Archivio glottologico italiano, XIII, 439, 459.

M1> mbl: similāre > semblar, trēmūlat > trembla. In sembrar we find an r < l due perhaps to the analogy of membrar < memorāre. In semel gives ensemble essems.

Pl > bl: $c\bar{o}p\bar{u}la$ > cobla, $d\bar{u}plum$ > doble. Learned words have pl: duplicar.

Rl>rl: Carŏlus> Carles, hōrolŏgium> orloi, *paraulare> parlar.

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¹ Most of the words in this category are semi-learned: cf. fabla and faula. See § 55, B. ² See § 47, (2).

Sl>sl: i(n)sŭla>isla. For ilha, see § 65, S, 1. vedet varlet

Tl>tl, which during the literary period became ll and then l: rŏtŭlum>rotle rolle, spath‡la> espatla espalla espala. In really popular words tl had become cl in Vulgar Latin.¹

Yl>il: bajŭlus> bailes. Cf. § 65, Y, (1).

- 69. A group of three consonants remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: ambulāre> amblar, implēre> emplir, avūncūlus> avoncles, circūlus> cercles, mascūlus> mascles, *afflammāre> aflamar, inflāre> enflar, ūngūla> ongla, emplastrum> emplastre.
- 1. Selcle, beside cercle, seems to show an assimilation of the r to the l of the next syllable. Empastre, beside emplastre, has been influenced by pasta. Emblar is probably from V. L. *imbolare = involare.

3. GROUPS ENDING IN R.

70. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that br, gr, lr, nr generally remained unchanged; mr, sr, zr (and sometimes lr, nr) developed a glide consonant; cr, pr voiced, and β r, c'r, dr, tr, yr vocalized their first element.

Br > br, also ur, occasionally ir (through ür): fabrum > fabre faure², fĕbrem > febre feure, lībra > libra liura; Octōbrem > ochoyre. For brg, see § 80.

 β r>ur, occasionally ir: $b\bar{t}b\bar{e}re$ > beure, $d\acute{e}b\bar{e}r'$ hábeo > $de\beta$ r'- áyo > $deur\acute{a}i$, * $r\bar{o}b\check{o}rem$ > roure roire; * $m\check{o}v\check{e}re$ (= $m\check{o}v\check{e}re$) > moure, $p\check{l}\check{o}v\check{e}re$ > ploure.

Cr>gr: acrem > agre, lacrima > lagrema, lucrum > logre, macrum > magre, sacrāre > sagrar, socrum > sogre. In late learned words we find cr: secret.

C'r > ir: cocere > coire, dicere > dire, ducere > duire, facere > faire. Cf. § 49, (1).

Dr > or > ir: divīdere > devire, quadrum > caire, vídēr' há-

¹ See § 47, (2). ² Also faur: cf. § 52, (1), 1. ³ Sozer < sŏcĕrum: cf. § 49, (1).

Depum>

beo > veð'r-áyo > veirái. After au, apparently, ð simply disappeared: claudere > claure. Late learned words have dr: quadrupedi.

Gr, in popular words, was reduced to r in Vulgar Latin in parts of the Empire: $fra(g)r\bar{a}re > * frarar * flarar flazar, inte(g)$ rum > enter entier, ni(g) rum > ner nier, pere(g) rīnum > peleri, pi(g)ritia > pereza; these forms occur in Gascony, Rouergue, and Limousin, but forms with gr are found in the same region. Elsewhere, in these same words, and everywhere, in more bookish words, gr remained in Vulgar Latin; this gr was kept in most of the Provençal territory, but was are a changed to ir in Dauphine, Auvergne, and Languedoc: fragrāre > flairar, integrāre > enteirar, integrum > entegre enteir,2 nigrēscēre>negrezir, nigrum>negre neir, peregrīnum>pelegri, pigritia > pigreza. Purely learned words have gr everywhere: agricultura.

Gr: see Yr.

Lr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ldr8: válēr' hábeo > valrai valdrai, * vólēr' hábeo > volrai voldrai.

Mr>mbr: camera> cambra, memorāre> membrar, numerum > nombre.

Nr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ndr⁸: cinerem > cenre cendre, die Veneris > divenres divendres, in-generare > engenrar, Henricum > Enric, exponere > esponre espondre, *gěněrem (=gěnus)> genre, gěněrum> genre gendre,

¹ For the vowel of ner nier, see § 25, 1, (e).

^{*} Enteir, neir seem to have lost final e under the influence of numerous adjectives in -er -ier -ieir < -arium.

⁸ In the modern dialects the d is probably commoner than it was in the old literary language; it occurs in Bordeaux, Languedoc, and Provence.

N.

honorāre > onrar ondrar, tenēr habeo > tenrai tendrai, venīr habeo > venrai vendrai.

Pr > br: capra > cabra, căperāre > cobrar, eripēre > erebre, opera > obra, pauper > paubre, *piperāta > pebrada, recipēre > recebre, săperāre > sobrar, săper > sobre. Purely learned words have pr: caprin. It is uncertain whether paupre (beside the usual paubre) is a Latinism or represents some dialect in which au prevented voicing.

Sr>str: * $\check{e}ss\check{e}re$ (= $\check{e}sse$)> estre. For esser, see § 49, (2).

Tr>dr> dr> or> ir: amātor> amaire, fratrem> fraire, latro> maire, mater> maire, mater> maire, mater> maire, mater> maire, pētra> peira, Pētrus> Accelus Peires, petrōnem> peiro, petrōsus> peiros, pre(s)byterum (Einf., § 140)> preveire, servītor> servire, vitrum> veire. Learned words have dr and tr: *poenītēre> penedre (penedir), impetrāre> impetrar.

Yr > ir: frīgěre > frire, legere > leyre.

Zr > zdr: mīsĕrunt + * mĭssĕrunt > * mezron mesdron.

1. Redebre (beside rezemér) < redimere has apparently been influenced by recebre. The Burgundian sor for sobre comes from the prefix sür-(sür-rīdēre, etc.). Perri < *pētrīnum is probably French.

71. A group of three consonants nearly always remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: ŭmbra > ombra, arbŏrem > arbre, sepūlcrum > sepulcre, *can-c(e)rōsus > cancros, *addīrēctum > adreit, fūndĕre > fondre, ardĕre > ardre, *offerīre > offrir, *Hungaria > Ongria, rūmpĕre > rompre, apprēssum > apres, asprum > aspre, ūltra > oltra, intrāre > entrar, mo(n)strāre > mostrar, mīttĕre > metre. Lβr and rg'r, however, regularly became ldr and rdr, and llr became ldr to the same extent as lr (q. v.): absŏlvĕre > absoldre (absolvre is probably a Latinism), pūlvĕrem > poldre; *dē-ēr' gĕre > derdre; tollĕre > tolre toldre. Rmr became rbr in marmor> marbre (also marme). Prendre often became penre (perhaps to distinguish it from pendre < pĕndĕre) through the analogy of genre gendre, etc.; the first r having been lost by dissimilation.

The four-consonant group sbtr is reduced to str in prestre < prestre.
 prestre < prestre.
 prepare is perhaps a proclitic syncopation of a V. L. *preβiter.
 Cf. § 78, 1.

4. GROUPS ENDING IN W.

- 72. This class includes not only Latin gu, qu, but all combinations of consonant + u, cf. § 40, (2). A w thus evolved seems to have developed like Germanic w (cf. § 56, W): it became gw (assimilating the preceding consonant, unless that consonant was a liquid or a nasal), and then was reduced, before the literary period, to g, cf. § 62, (2). Pw, however, had a quite different history, owing, on the one hand, to the affinity of its two labial elements, and, on the other, to the stability of the voiceless stop, which prevented the assimilation that we find in $\beta w > ww$.
- 1. G. Körting (Zs., XXII, 258) would explain through the analogy of the perfects in -cui all other perfect forms which in Provençal have g and c corresponding to Latin -ui etc.
- βw>ww>gw>g: habuissem>agues, dēbuit>dec (§ 63); *co(g)nōvuit (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 357)>conoc, *crevuistī>creguist, *movuisset>mogues, *plŏvuit>ploc. We seem to have the same combination in Germanic treuwa> tregua trega (treva is probably French).
- 1. The diphthong of $aic = habu\bar{i}$ is probably not a phonetic development. The first and third persons of the preterit, aic and ac (< habuit), have been differentiated after the pattern of the present—ai and a.

Dw > gw > g: *sĕduit > sec.

1. Vezoa < vidua must be an early learned word: veuva is perhaps from veua < veuða < veðua.



his acia-

Kw>gw>g: antīqua>antiga, ēqua>ega, æquālem>egal (engal has received through a mistake in etymology the prefix en- or e-<in-), nocuit>noc, placuistī> plaguist, *sequēre (= sequi)> segre, *sequēre> seguir, tacuissem> tagues.

- I. Several words show a different development: cf. Ltblt., XXIV, 335; Zs., XXVIII, 381. In aqua (or acqua) and aquila (or *acquila) the first consonant became, for some reason, a spirant, which later changed to i: axwa>aiwa>aigua aiga, áxwila>áiwila>áigwila>aigla. So aig- *lentina. These same words show irregularities in other languages. Perhaps the dialect form eigal (Auvergne, Arles) for egal is to be explained in the same way; but the ei here may be analogical.
- 2. In several words kw was reduced to c (or c') in Vulgar Latin: coquère (+ còcus) > còcère > cozer, tòrquère *tòrquère (+ *tòrco *tòrcunt) > *tòrcère > torser. Cf. § 55, W.

Lw>lgw>lg: caluit>calc, *toluistī> tolguist, valuissem > valgues, voluerunt (§ 16, 2) > volgron.

Nw, ngw, nkw > ngw > ng: těnuit > tenc, *venuisset > vengues; sanguem > sanc; cīnque (= quinque) > cinc. sancurium > quintre gues; sanguem > sanc; cīnque (= quinque) > cinc.

- 1. Teuns < tënuis is probably a learned word; the transposition of u and n may have been due originally to a misreading of the letters. Ianuer, manual, etc. are learned. Maneira is apparently from a Vulgar Latin *man(u)aria from manuarius. For enquerre < inquarëre, see § 59.
 - 2. Exstinguère (+ *exstingo *exstinguni) > *estingère > estenher.

Pw>upw>up>ub: sapuisset> saubes, recipuit> receup.

1. Saupes apparently belongs to a dialect in which au prevented voicing. Cf. § 65, P, 3.

Rw>rgw>rg: měruit>merc.

Sw seems to have been reduced early to s in consuctūdinem *costūmen>costūm (costūma). Cōnsŭo apparently became *cōsio, whence an infinitive *cōsĕre or *cosīre (Pr. cozer, cosir).

Tw > dw > gw > g: potuit > poc.

I. Ba(t)tuo, qua(t)tuor were reduced to batto, *quattor in Vulgar Latin: Pr. bat, quatre.

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5. GROUPS ENDING IN Y.

73. This class contains: 1st, combinations of consonant + y < e or i, cf. § 40, (2); 2d, consonant + g' > y (§ 55, G), the g' having been in some cases always contiguous to the preceding consonant, in others originally separated from it by a vowel; 3d, consonant + g > y, the g representing an original g or g between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, cf. g 65, G, (3). It does not include dy and g, which early became g: see g 65, Y. See g 63, (1). The groups will be considered in alphabetical order:—

Bry > bry in ebriacum > ebriac (iure is probably French).

By was early reduced to y in habeo habeam etc. and debeo debeam etc., partly, no doubt, through the proclitic use of these words, partly under the influence of audio>*auyo audiam > * auya and video > * veyo videam > * veya; this y, like any other medial y (§ 65, Y), became dž or remained y: ai (for some reason there seems to have been no form *ach), aia; dei dech, deia. Aside from these words, $\beta y > udž$ and -... uy apparently in the north; elsewhere uy, by, vy-uy prevailing in the west, by and vy in the south and east. When the y became final, it changed to i, which, after a consonant, was syllabic. Ex.: abbreviat > abreuia, *aggreviat > agreuia, w. alleviat > aleuia, aviolum > aviol aiol, cavea > gabia cauia, as labia > lavia-s, * leviarius > leugiers, * rabiam (= rabiem) > 1 rabia rauia, * rabiāre > rabiar, rabiāsus > rabios rauios, rubeum > rog roi, * *sabium > savi sabi, atavia > tavia, vidu- vu.t vium > vezoig bedoi.2 In purely learned words, Latin bi, vi, etc., are kept: abiurament, fluvial. Brěvio > brey: cf. § 65, \beta, 3. Cc'y: see C'y.

¹ Ratie is perhaps French.

After o, the u disappears.

Cly>1': coclearium > cuilhier.

Cty>is: factionem> faisso, lectionem> leisso, suspectionem > sospeisso. In purely learned words we find the spellings cti, cci, which doubtless indicate ktsy or ksy: electio, accio. Cf. Ssy.

C'y, cc'y, kwy>ts; this ts, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: bracchia brassa, bracchium>bratz bras (§ 64), faciam>faza fassa, faciem>fatz fas, glaciem>glatz glas¹, laqueāre>lassar, laqueum>latz las, *pēcia>pessa, placeam>plassa. Learned words have zi and ci, doubtless pronounced at first dzi, tsi, later zi, si (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545; XXV, 736): iuzizi iudici, edifici, Grecia. Cf. Pty.

 $D-g > d\tilde{z}: j\bar{u}d\tilde{t}co > i\ddot{u}tge, m\tilde{e}d\tilde{t}cum > mege, *s\tilde{e}d\tilde{t}cum > seie^2$.

Dy: see § 55, Y and § 65, Y.

Gdy: see § 80, Gd.

Gy: see § 55, Y and § 65, Y.

Kwy: see Cy.

ofice see that

Lc'y>lts>uts>us: calceare> caussar. Cf. Lty. See § 74, (2).

Lg' apparently became ldz udz uz in *fülgerem (=fülgur) > fouzer. 1 - * trans > britis trans britis

Ll-g'>l' in colligit> cuell. Cf. Ly.

Lly: see Ly.

Lny > n': balneum > banh.

Lty>lts>uts>us: *altiāre> auçar aussar. Cf. Lc'y. See § 74, (2).

¹ Glai is due perhaps to the analogy of ney (§ 65, β , 3), perhaps to such double forms as fatz fai = facit.

² Seti (pronounced with two syllables) seems to be an improperly constructed post-verbal noun from assetiar. For metgue, etc., see § 65, G, (3).

Lvy>lby>uby in salvia> saubia (Gascon).

Ly, lly > l': consilium > cosselh, filium > filh, filia > filha, nūllī + vowel > nülh. Learned words have li: familiarmens. Lili liri lire < līlium are doubtless learned; lis is French.

Mby>mby, mdž, and ndž; mdž being the usual form in homes the literary language: cambiāre> camiar caniar cambiar.

thouse bear plombian plonian plonian

GAX. 24 41.

Mmy>my, mdž, and ndž: commeātus>comiatz coniatz.

Mny>n' in Limousin and in the extreme east and southwest, elsewhere ndž: somniāre> sonhar soniar. Somni, beside suenh songe, is learned.

Mply>mply in ampliare>ampliar, probably learned.

My>my and n': sīmia>simia, vindēmia>vendemia vendanha.

Nc'y>nts>ns: *Francia> Fransa. Cf. Nty.

Nd-g > ndž: *pěndřcat > penia, vřndřco > venie. Similarly mandūcāre > *mandugare manduyare mandyare > maniar¹.

Ndy>n': *Burgundia> Borgonha, verecundia> vergonha. N-g>ndž: *excomminico (=excommunico)> escomenie¹, monachum> monie.

Ng'> n' and ndž: jüngëre > ionher ionger, ŭngëre > onher onger, plangëre > planher planger, pungëre > ponher, ponger. Angel is probably learned.

Ng'y > ndž: spŏngia > esponia. Nny > n': stanneum > estanh.

Nty>nts>ns: cantionem>canso, comin(i)tiare>cornensar, sperantia>esperansa. Purely learned words have nti: essentia. Cf. Nc'y.

Ny>n': extraneum> estranh, teneo> tenh, veniat> venha. Before or during the literary period final n' or n's lost its

¹Apparently maniar, escomeniar developed in the region where g became y before a: cf. § 65, G, (1).

ebric* ofrice

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palatal quality in many dialects: ingenium > genh gen. estraniar comes from extraneare (and not from *extranicare), it must be a word of later adoption; so estrangier. In sotran and indictions _____ subterraneum there is probably a change of suffix.

Pry probably became regularly bry: capreolum>*cabriol cabirol (cabrol seems to be a new formation from cabra). Coyre <? cupreum is unexplained. Kungos aprices > ightimes of safes

> Pty>ts, which, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: *captiāre > cassar, *corruptiāre > corrossar, neptia > nessa, *noptias (§ 38, 2)> nossas. Cf. C'y.

Py remained py in the west and a part of the south, and elsewhere became ptš, later tš: apium > ache api, *appropiat (prope) > apropcha apropha apropha, sapiam > sapcha sacha sapia, sapientem > sachent sapient, sepia > sepia. Asabentar with is from saben. Piion < pipionem is French. Learned words have pi: copia; but mancipium > mancip massip.

Rc'y>rts (>rs?): urceolum (Zs., XXVI, 668)> orzol.

Rdy > rdz: * dis-tardiat > destarza. Ordi = hŏrdeum is perhaps from the genitive hordei, as in tres modii hordei, etc.

R-g > rdž: cleries.

Rg'>rdž and rdz (>rz): argěntum>argen, *burgē(n)sis > borges borzes (also borgues, under the influence of borc), *dē-ērigit>ders, *dē-ēr(i)gěre>derzer (also derdre: § 71), sŭrgere > sorger sorzer, surgit > sortz. : 2 (sharet here < heret

Rny > rn': *Arvěrnium > Alvernhe.

Rr-g > rdž: * carricat > caria.

Rry > ir: porrum > *porreum > poyre; but *horrearium? titterm glanaty > orgier (cf. Körting).

Rt-g>rdž and rts (>rs): *excorticat> escoria escorsa.

Rty>rts>rs: *fortiāre>forsar, tertium>terz ters. Convercio is learned.

Rvy>rvy rby: *cĕrvia> cervia cerbia.

Ry>r', which developed into ir when it remained medial, but became r at the end of a word1: *exclariare> esclairar, *donatoria > donadoira, *feria > feira fieira, feriat > feira, matěria > madeira, * moriat > moira, primaria > premeira premieira (§ 23, 1), * punitoria > punidoira, varia > vaira, variare > vairar; *a(u)gūrium > aur, corium > cuer, *donatorium > (at uuo ma donador, imperium > empier, ministerium > mestier, * morio > mor muer, monastěrium > mostier (§ 45, 3), primarius > premiers, *punitorius > punidors. If the ry is preceded by au, it apparently remains unchanged: Auriacum > Auriac (Zs., XXVII, 559). Learned words have ri: bori < ebŏreum, contrari.

1. Adjectives in -er (-ier) and -or, coming from -arium and -ōrium, regularly have feminines in -eira (-ieira) and -oira. By the analogy of the masculine, there is a feminine in -era in parts of the west; by the analogy of the feminine, there is a masculine in -eir in Auvergne. The i of vair probably comes from the feminine vaira and from the verb vairar. The noun feira sometimes becomes fiera like a feminine adjective.

Sc'y: see Ssy.

Ssy, sc'y, sty > s', which in most of the territory became is, but in the west and the extreme east developed into i(t) s and (t)š: *bassiāre > baissar baichar bachar, *angustia > engoissa, * ingrossiat > engrueissa, fascia > faissa, *grassiāre > graissar, postea > pueissas pueih püch, ūstium > üis.

Sty: see Ssy.

Sy > z', which in most of the territory became iz, but in parts of the northeast, north, and west developed into i(d)ž and (d)ž, and in some scattered dialects gave y and z: ba-

varium >

¹ The r remained palatal long enough to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30, 37.

sium > bais bai (§ 63), basiare > baisar baiiar baiar bayar basar, quasi + vowel > cais quaish, camisia (cf. Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie, XII, 265) > camiza, ceresea (Einf., § 103) > cireiza cirieiia cerieya cerieza, ma(n)sionem > maison maion mayo, occasionem > ochaizo, pre(hen)sionem > preiso (cf. enpreyona, 'imprisons'), quid se + vowel > queis, Ger. sazjan > saisir, to(n)sionem > toiso.

T-g > dž: *coraticum > corage, *paraticum > parage, viaticum > viatie. For messatgue, etc., see § 65, (3).

Try apparently became ir: atrium? > aire, arbitrium > albire.

Tty>ts>s: *plattea>plassa.

Ty>apparently t'>d'> generally d'z', which in most of the west and north became dz, but in the south and east developed into idz; dz and idz, when they remained medial, were reduced, before and during the literary period, to z and iz: *altitia> alteza, *bellitia> beleza, malitia> maleza, pi-gritia> pereza, *pritiat> preza, *rikitia> riqueza; palatium> palatz palaitz palais (§ 64), puteum> potz püis, pritium> pretz pres, solatium> solatz solas; potionem> pozon poizon, *pretiare > prezar, rationem> razo raizon, s(t) ationem> sazo saizon. The forms without i prevail in the literary language, and in words in which the dz comes after the accent (especially in the ending -eza) they seem to have encroached largely upon the ground of the others. According to some philologists, the development of ty differed according to its position before or after the accent: for a brief bibliography of the discussion,

¹ These sounds lost their palatal quality too early to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30, 37. Cf. Einf., § 133.

² Palaits, however, is used by Marcabru, A. Daniel, and P. Vidal. Poison occurs in Flamenca and in modern Limousin (beside poson), raiso is found in the Boeci and other texts.

- see Zs., XXVII, 689. In learned words we find si, ci, ci, ti: estimatio, iustizia -icia -ecia -ecia, natio nacio, negoci, servizi -ici (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545, XXV, 736, XXXI, 200).
- 1. Palai (beside palats -aits -ais) may have been made from palais (used by Bertran de Born and in Flamenca) by dropping the s which was regarded as an inflectional ending. It was perhaps influenced by such words as bais bai: cf. Sy. A clerical Latin *palasium, however, would account, not only for palai palais, but also for French palais and for Italian palagio.
- 2. Modern poijon (Alps) and rajo (Limousin) have perhaps followed the analogy of such words as maison maijon majon: cf. Sy.
- 3. Escoisson < excitiunt seems to follow *escois < excitio. It was perhaps influenced by conoisson < co(g)nōscunt.
- 4. Some of the modern western dialects have d in radon, sadon, etc. = razo, sazo, etc.
 - 6. Groups Beginning with L, M, N, R, or S.
- 74. (1) Of the groups beginning with 1 (and not ending in 1, r, w, or y), the following remained unchanged (except that c before a became tš in the north and north \$\psi \text{st} \to -1b\$, Ic (and llc), Ig (llg), Im, Ip, Iv: \$alba > \text{alba}; \$calcare > \text{calcare} > \text{calcare} > \text{calcare} > \text{calcare} > \text{calcare} > \text{collocare} * collocare * collogare * col
- (2) L became u before the dental consonants d, s, t in most of the dialects. The vocalization seems to have begun in the 8th century and to have progressed through the literary

period and later. It is difficult to trace it, as *l* long continued to be written for u. In modern Provençal, ls remains in Languedoc, lt in Rouergue. Auça occurs in the Boeci. The l was probably first retracted, to differentiate it from the following dental; and then this velar l was opened into u. Ex.: cal(i)daria > caudiera, cal(i)dum > caut, sŏl(i)dum > solt sout; falsum > fals faus, malos > mals maus, valles > vals vaus; *fallita > fauta, mūltum > molt mout, *tŏllītum > tolt tout; dūlcem > dolz doutz dous, pŏllīcem > poutz, salīcem > sautz; calvus > *cals caus, *vŏlvīta > volta vouta. So *altiat > auça aussa, *calceare > cauçar caussar: cf. § 73, Lc'y, Lty. In dos (=dous) and mot (= mout) the o seems to have absorbed the u. Cf. § 65, L.

- 1. The final t of *molt* seems to have been lost sometimes before a consonant: hence *mul*, which, influenced by *man*, 'many', became *mon*.
- 2. Altretal (also autretal) became atretal by dissimilation; hence we have also atressi for altressi (autressi). Aital, aitan seem to be made up of tal, tan with the first syllable of aissi (<a sīc), regarded as a prefix meaning 'just'.

 aith: aith: aith: morten = morten (Auch)
 - 3. Pallidus > palles (through the feminine * páleza).
 - 4. Fouzer is from fülger or *fülgerem = fülgur.

75. Of the groups beginning with m (and not ending in 1, r, w, or y), the following usually remained unchanged — mb, md, mf, mp, ms, mt: gamba > gamba (if bobansa is from $\beta \delta \mu \beta \delta s$, it is irregular); *semitarium *semidarium > semdier; triumphāre > triomfar; lampas *lampa > lampa; *camisīle? > camsil (dialectically cansil; so Samson, Sanso); comitem > comte (dialectically conte). For mbd in ambo duos see § 111, 2. Mn in the literary language generally remained unchanged (often spelled mpn), but in some dialects it was assimilated into nn, which was locally simplified into n: domina domna > dompa domna domna dona, damnāre > dampnar

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damnar dannar danar, fēmina *fēmna > femna fenna (feme is from fémena < fēmina), hominem * homnem > omne (ome is from *ómene < hominem). When final, it regularly became de approprie n, occasionally m: damnum > dan, somnum > son som.2 Mnc' > ndz nz in * domnicilla > donzela. Mpt mt > mt. dialectically nt: computare > comtar contar, temptare > temptar tentar; domitāre > domptar.8

76. (1) Of the groups beginning with n (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following generally remained unchanged (except that c, g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast)—nc, nd, ng, nm, nt: hanka > anca, blank-> blanc (-ca -cha), franko>franc (-ca -cha); mandare> mandar, unda > onda; longum > lonc (-ga -ia), plango > plane, ring > rene; anima > anma (also, by dissimilation, arma); sentire > sentir. For final nd, nt, see (2) below. Nc' > nts ns: * francē(n) sis > frances, mancipium > mansip (also massip: cf. ns below), vincere > vencer venser. Nct became in different dialects n' int nt nts: junctum > ionh ioint iont ionch, ŭnctūra > onchüra, *pinctūra > peintüra penchüra, planctum > planh planch, sanctum > sanh saint sant. Ndc' became, in different dialects, ndz (later nz), nts, ndž: quinděcim > quinze quintze quinge. Ndt > nd nt: *rendita > renda renta. Nf remained in some dialects, while in others it became ff, then f: confundit > confon cofon, infantem > enfant effant efant, infernum > enfern efern. Ng > ng: monachum *mon'gu>mongue (manicum>margue by dissimilation). Ns. in learned words and new formations (see § 55, N), remained in most dialects, while in others (especially those of the centre) it became ss, then s; consilium > conselh cosselh, in

au. t

² Daun, etc., are Gascon.

³ Such forms as amda < amita, comde conde < computum, show a late fall of the medial vowel.

. Wac

consunderey cousse. A (consumar cosmaz simul > ensem essem, * insignāre > ensenhar essenhar, pensāre > pensar pessar, sensus > sens; for final ns, see § 63, (5). Ntc'> nts ns in panticem > pansa. Nv remained in some diamurchane lects, while in others it became vv, then v: convenire > convenir Ndc, ndg, n-g, ng' have been treated under § 73.

> (2) Final nd remained as nt in the eastern and central part of the territory, became n in the west and a part of Limousin, and disappeared altogether in a part of Languedoc and Gascony: amando > aman, descendit > deissen, grandem > grant gran gra, mundum > mont mon, vēndit > vent ben, profundum > preon, quando > quant quan. Final nt remained in most of the territory, but in a part of Languedoc and Gascony became n or disappeared: fontem > font fon fo, montem > mont mon, quantum > quant quan, ventum > vent bent be.

For efanh, parenh, monh < mundi, etc., see § 51, 1.

77. Of the groups beginning with r (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following remained unchanged (except that c, g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) - rb, rc, rd, rf, rg, rm, rn, rp, rs, rt, rv: barba > barba, cŏrbum > corp; barca > barca, circare > cercar, clericum * clercum > clerc, furca > forca forcha, mercatum > mercat; ardentem > arden, *perdūtum > perdüt, vir(i) dem > vert; orphanum > orfe; *carricare *carrigare *cargare > cargar cariar, largum > larc (-ga -ia), sērica *sēr'ga> serga; erēmum> erm, forma> forma; * hibernum > ivern, taberna > taverna, tornare > tornar; werpan > guerpir; arsum > ars, cursum > cors (for versus > ves, see § 55, R); artem > art, förtem > fort; servire > servir. For final rn, rs, see § 63, (5); § 65, R. Rc'>rts rs: parcere> parcer, Rdc' became, in different diaparcit > partz, * törcere > torser. lects, rdz (later rz), rts, rdž: quatuordecim *quattordecim> quatorze quatorze quatorge. Rdg before a > rg, rdž: viridi-

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cantem *virdigantem > verguan verian. Rdt > rd: perdita > Rps>rs: *escarpsus (= excerptus)> escars. Rtm> rtm or rm: förti mënte > fortmen formen. For rg' see § 73.

78. Of the groups beginning with s (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following usually remained unchanged through the literary period (except that c before a became tš in the north and northeast) - sc, sm (ssm), sn, sp, st: *buscum (?=buxum)?>bosc, *luscum>losc, pascha>pasca pascha, pěrstca pěsstca * pěsca > pesca, piscator > pescaire, piscarium > pesquier peschier, prescan * trescare > trescar; ex-mittere *esmittere (§ 55, X)>esmetre, pessimus>pesmes; eleemosyna norna > almosna, asinum > asne; exponere * esponere > esponre, gaspildjan? > guespilhar; præpositum > prebost, trīstem > trist. For final scs, sts, see 2 below. Sc' became, in most of the territory, is; in parts of the north and northeast, s; in the west and the extreme east, i(t) s and (t) s (cf. § 73, Ssy): co(g) noscere > conoisser, crescere > creisser, ex-cernere * escernīre > eissernir, *ex-cerebellāre *es-> esservelar, fascem > fais, nascere > naisser nasser naicher nacher, piscem > peis peich pech. Scb became sb in episcopus *ebiscobus > bisbes (also bispes and ebesques). Spm became sm in blasphemare > blasmar. Spt > st: hospitem > oste (also osde). Stg became sg and sdž in domesticare *-gare > domesgar domesiar. Stm became sm in asthma > asma. For the later history of the s in all these groups, see § 65, S, 1.

1. Presbyter became regularly prestre: § 71, 1. But beside presbyter there existed in Vulgar Latin prebiter (Einf., § 140), the syllable presbeing replaced by the Latin prefix pre- or pre-, through the analogy of such words as prabitor, prapositus. From the accusative prebiterum we have regularly preveire. Preire is a cross between prestre and preveire.

2. Final sts, in nearly all the territory, was reduced to ts: finīstis> finitz, höstis > Qz (accusative Qst), trīstes > tritz (sg. trist); but sts was kept in estz < istos and in its derivative aquestz. Similarly final scs was

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generally reduced to cs: *buscus? > (boscs) bocs (accusative bosc), quisquis > quecs.

3. Conois etc. $\langle co(g)n\bar{o}sco$ etc. (beside conosc etc.) are doubtless due to the second and third persons (conoisses conois etc.). Some of the modern eastern dialects have -isso corresponding to -sca (freisso etc.): this seems to indicate an old metathesis of sc in that region.

7. MISCELLANEOUS GROUPS.

70. Of the groups not yet discussed, the most important are ct, gd, gn, ks, which show palatalization. It is now generally assumed that the Celts, who had turned their native ct into xt, pronounced Latin ct in the same way when they learned Latin (Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 186), and likewise substituted xs for ks (Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, § 650), and probably xd, xn for gd, gn. The x was attracted into a palatal spirant by the following dental, and the dental itself was then palatalized. Most philologists explain the development of cl, gl into l' (cf. § 68) in a similar way. Inasmuch as Indo-European pt had also been changed to xt in Celtic, it is not unlikely that the Celts substituted xt, xs for Latin pt, ps such 17 in a few words; the x replacing p may sometimes have been rounded.

- 1. To account for palatalization in the non-Celtic parts of southern Gaul, we may assume either that the spirant pronunciation spread from the Celtic to the other regions, or that in the latter the palatalization came about simply through the mutual attraction of the guttural and the dental.
- 80. The groups will now be discussed in alphabetical order: -

Bc>(*pc), ptš (before a): *reprob(i) cat> repropcha. Brg>rg or urg in fabrica *fabriga> farga faurga. Cf. § 70,

Br.

Bs > bs in the learned words absens, absensa.

Bsc > sc: obscūrus > escürs.

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Bst > st: $s\bar{u}bstat >$ sosta.

Bt > bt, t: subtilem > sobtil sotil. See also β t below.

Bts > ts: $s\check{u}btus >$ sotz.

 $\beta c > uc: *avica *a\beta ca > auca.$

βc'>udz or uts, later uz, us: avicěllum *aβcěllu> auzel aucel. Cf. § 65, C', 1.

 $\beta d > ud$, in the west bd: $d\bar{e}b\bar{i}tum * d\bar{e}\beta\bar{i}du * de\beta du > deude$, malhabitum *malaβidu *malaβdu > malaude; cīvitātem *cīβi $d\bar{a}de * ci\beta dad > cibdat$. Cf. β t below. mod to deut

βt>ut, in the west pt: dēbitum * dēβtu> deute depte, dūbito canting market * dūβto> doute dopte, mal habitum * malaβtu> malaute market believed to believe to be the market believed to be the market b lapte; cīvitātem * cīβtate > ciutat (later cieutat: § 44, 2) substancemciptat, * movita * moβta > mouta, * removitum? > remoute but doubt (Girart). Depte, malapte are not confined to the west (modern Limousin dete, Dauphiné malate); they come also from Latin deb'tum, mal'hab'tum: cf. § 47, (3).

> Cc'>its>is; in the west and the extreme east its or ts: ecc'hīc > eici eissi eichi achi.

> Cm > cm, m: */ácomus > Iacmes Iames (also, perhaps borrowed, Iaimes, Iaumes).

> C'm > im or sm: $d\check{e}c\check{m}um > deime desme, fac\check{m}u(s) > faim.$ Cf. § 52, (4).

Ct > tš in most of the territory; but in the north and northeast, and in the southwest, it became, as in French, it: coctare > cochar coitar, dīctum > dig dit, factum > fag fait, lacte > lag lait, lectum > lieg leit, lūcta > lücha, noctem > nueg nueit, pactum-a > pacha, pectus > pieg peitz, octo > ueich ueit. The ct of (e-) jectāre > getar does not show popular treatment; the word is similarly irregular in most of the other languages.

C't seems to give the same results as ct, namely tš and it: dīcitis > ditz, *explicitāre > esplechar espleitar, facitis > faitz,

gauta

7 Rofita

rechare> zitur bretare ernetari > rotar

rueta" pectorinacs pertriva

¹ The *i* in *weich* seems to be merely graphic

placitum > plach plait, (hence plaieiamen, plaideiar), * võcitum (= vacuum) > vuech voig¹ voh (hence voiar; voidar would appear to presuppose a form * voit).

Dc, dg: see § 73, D-g.

Dc', in the greater part of the territory, became dz, later z; but in Auvergne and some western dialects it became ts, and in parts of the southeast and southwest it gave dž: duŏdčcim * dodecim > doze doze doze doge, jūdicem > iütge, radicīna > razina, sēdčcim > seze setze setze. Tütge may have been influenced by iütiar.

Dn developed peculiarly in consuetūdinem *costūmen > costūm, incūdinem *inclūd-? > enclütge. Rodanum > Roine | hedicullum > pecol (habé-lug)

Gd>dž and id, corresponding to the tš and it from ct:

*frigdum (=frigdum)> freg freit (fem. freia freida).² The analytic irregularity in amigdāla> amandola goes back to Vulgar amitta Latin. Frezir freizir is perhaps from *fre(i)zar (cf. Italian frizzare) < *frigdiare.

*analogda > comerciada maragda amigda.

G'd: see Yd.

Gm>m: pigměntum>pimen. Fragment is learned. Greek γμ became um: phlěgma> fleuma, sagma> sauma.

Gn>n': agněllum> anhel, půgnum> ponh. According to the rhymes, final n' would seem to have become n in many dialects. Stagnum> estanc, $r\bar{c}gnum>$ renc (also reing) show an early metathesis. When $gn\bar{o}sco$ lost its g, $cogn\bar{o}sco$ became * $con\bar{o}sco$ in popular Latin.

Gnd > n'd, later, in different dialects, ind, n'd, nd, ndž: cŏgnǐtum *cŏn'ĭdu > *conhede *conhde, then coinde, cuende, conge. Cf. Gnt below. See § 47, 1.

Gnt > n't, later, in different dialects, int, n't, nt: cognitum > *con'itu > *conhete (the t being due to clerical influence)>

¹ The *i* in *voig* seems to be merely graphic.

² Fret, freda occur also.

No. mancipium> massif massif

§ 8o]

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

77

cointe conte; dignitatem * din'tate > denhtat. Cf. Gnd above.

Ks > is, in most of the territory; in Auvergne and in the extreme east it became its or ts: ac sīc > aissi, exāmen > eissam eicham echam, exīlium > eissilh, exīre > eissir eichir ichir, *exorbāre > eissorbar, laxat > laissa, uxōrem > oissor, tōxīcum > tueissec. In essaiar, essemple, essilh, the prefix became es—through the analogy of ex—before consonants: cf. § 55, X. de ex > dus; deus ferh. fr. de ipas

Ksc>sc; before a, in the north and northeast, stš: *laxi-cāre>laschar, toxicāre>toscar.

Ksm>s'm, later sm: proximum> prosme pruesme. For the later history of the s (prueime), see § 65, S, 1.

Kss>is: *exsanguinātum> eissancnat, *exsūcāre> eissügar (essugar presupposes a Vulgar Latin es-: see § 55, X).

Pf > f: sapphīrum > safir.

Ppc>(*pc), ptš (before a): *cloppicare> clopchar.

Ps, in some dialects, remained unaltered; but in most of the territory it changed (through xs: § 79) to is, iš, š, s, and * us; iš and š belonging especially to the west, us to the east: capsa > capsa caissa caisha casha, ipse > eps eis, ipsa mente > epsament eissamen ichamens, met-ipse > medeis mezeish medes mezeus, ne-ipse > neeps neis neus. The ps forms seem to have been crowded out by the others, especially by those with is.

Pt>pt, later t (except in parts of Languedoc and Gascony); in a few words, ut, it: *accaptāre (or *accapitāre?)> acaptar achatar, aptum>apte, adaptāre>azautar (hence azaut) through *aðaxtāre (§ 79), baptizāre> baptegar (g = dž) bateiar, capitāle> captal catal chatal, captīvum> captiu catiu and more commonly caitiu chaitiu (through *caxtīßu:

^{*} Prom. XLVI, 115's calibra < rapsec first refusers

First < 12 and to the Committee de tours

nepte

§ 79), rupta > rota, septimāna > septmana setmana, septem > Escrich escrit (= scriptum) are based on dich dit.

Td>t (through V. L. tt): nitidum>net, pūtidum>püt. Cf. § 47, (1).

Tm: maritima > maredma.

Tn: if renha, 'rein', is connected with retine (see Körting), it must have been influenced by renhar < regnāre.

Ts: et sic, under the influence of ac sic, became *ec sic> eissi eichi ichi.

Yd>dž and id: cōgito *cōyido> cüg cüit, cōgitāre *cōyidare > cüiar cüidar, rigidum *riyidu > reide (§ 50, 1). Rede and the feminine resa are peculiar. Cf. § 49, (1).

FINAL CONSONANTS.

81. The only single consonants that occur in Latin at the end of a word are b, c, d, l, m, n, r, s, t. The only groups (in words preserved) are ks, nt, st.

SINGLE FINAL CONSONANTS.

82. D, n, r, t at the end of proclitics (ad, in, per, et) are really medial consonants and must be distinguished from final n, r, t in independent words (nomen, frater, amat); final d occurs only in proclitics. The consonants will be treated in alphabetical order: —

B apears as b in Iacob, p in Iop, both learned.

C apparently fell after all vowels in some dialects; in others it fell only after back vowels, and became i after a and front vowels: eccu'hoc (§ 55, W)>aco (§ 43, 2), ecce hoc> aisso ço so, hoc> o meaning 'it' (while oc, 'yes' probably comes also of from *hocque: cf. A. Thomas in Rom., XXXVII, 322); fac a jak like > fai, illác (§ 16, 4) > lai la, ecce hac > sai sa; dīc > di, ecce

the in the mile amorphism is the state of a CXIX, 164.

 $h\bar{\iota}c > \text{eici}$, $s\bar{\iota}c > \text{si}$. Düi $< d\bar{\iota}c$ may perhaps be explained as due to the analogy of düire and of fai. Cf. § 63; (6).

D in apud fell early: see § 65, P, 2. In the proclitics ad, quid, the d disappeared before a consonant, and before a vowel became in most dialects $\delta > z$ (cf. § 65, D): a, que; ad az, que δ quez. *alid > al aliqued > alque

L fell in *in simul*>essem. It remained in the learned Abel, tribunal. It is believed by some that *sivals*, 'at least', comes from *sī vel*.

M fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§ 55, M): $cr\bar{e}dam$ $cr\bar{e}da>cr\bar{e}za$, $d\bar{o}num$ $d\bar{o}nu>$ don, $f\bar{o}rtem$ $f\bar{o}rte>$ fort; Adam is learned. At the end of an independent monosyllable, it fell in some dialects and in others became n (cf. § 65, N): jam> ia, $r\bar{e}m>$ re ren (Marcabru uses rey for the rhyme), $s\bar{u}m$ (verb)> so son. At the end of proclitics, m was probably kept at first before vowels and labials, while it became n before dentals, η before gutturals, and disappeared before spirants; but the n forms (helped by the analogy of en, non) and those without a final consonant replaced m before vowels and partly before labials, and probably took the place of η before gutturals; we find, then, sometimes m before labials, but either no consonant or n before all other sounds: $qu\bar{e}m>$ que, $s\bar{u}m$ (verb)> so son, $s\bar{u}m$ (= $s\bar{u}um$)> so son som, * $t\bar{u}m$ (= $t\bar{u}um$)> to ton tom.

N fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§ 55, M): $n\bar{o}men\ n\bar{o}me > nom$. At the end of proclitics we generally find n before a vowel, a form without n before spirants, both forms before other consonants, but often m before a labial: in > en (en amar, en cant), e (e Fransa, e ls), em (em breu); $n\bar{o}n > non$ (non es, non ges), no (no falh, no tol), nom (nom plagues).

R remained: amātor> amaire, cor> cor, marmor> marbre (marme shows dissimilation), soror> sorre (sor through proclitic use). So in proclitics: per> per, super> sobre.

I. A Provençal final r began to fall in the west and south in the 14th century: cf. § 65, R, I. the state work in Source extraction a manual characteristics.

S remained: amīcus > amics, corpus > cors, facias > fassas, fortes > fortz, operas > obras, subtus > sotz. Between a palatal, or an n that did not fall, and an s, at developed in some dialects: annos > anz, fīlios > filz; cf. § 63, (1), (8).

- I. Final s began to fall or to become i in many dialects as early as the 14th century: cf. § 65, S, I. In mai, beside mais, the fall was earlier.
- 2. Final ts>t, in the second person plural of verbs, in parts of Limousin and Dauphiné: habētis>avet. Cf. § 64. In all first person plural forms (except esmes) final s fell very early: amāmus amāmu'> amām. Cf. § 167.
- 3. Through the influence of such common adverbs as entz < intus, fors < föris, ios < deōrsum, mais < magis, mens < minus, nemps < nimis, plus < plüs, sotz < sübtus, sus < sürsum, s, coming to be regarded as an adverbial ending, was often added to the suffix -men (belamens), to many other adverbs, as ensem-s, era-s, onca-s, poissa-s, and to some prepositions, as sen-s (cf. tras, vers, etc.). By the analogy of such double forms, we have for, men beside fors, mens.
- 4. Magis, used as a proclitic, probably became in Vulgar Latin *mais and *mas, whence Provençal mais and mas. For mai, see 1 above.

which, under the influence of ad and quid, developed like an original d: et > e, $e\delta$ ez; * ot > o, $o\delta$ oz; later, e and o came to be used often before vowels also.

FINAL GROUPS.

83. Ks remained in Vulgar Latin at the end of monosyllables only (§ 55, X); there it became, in Provençal, is: $r\bar{e}x$ > reis, $s\bar{e}x$ > seis. Greex, nicx are Latinisms.

Nt was generally reduced to n; but in the extreme north and some parts of the south the t was retained in -ant: amant > aman, $hab\bar{e}(b)ant$ > avian aviant; cantent> canten; $v\bar{e}ndunt$ > vendon. In some dialects the n fell after o, u (vendo, au); -on and -o were used concurrently by the poets.

St > s in est > es. Cf. § 28, 5.

SPORADIC CHANGE.

84. For certain consonant changes no laws have been established. Some of them doubtless originate in the language of children, which is governed by principles different from those which regulate the speech of adults. Others are due to vague associations of sound or sense. Borrowed and learned words are especially exposed to such whimsical alteration.

INSERTION.

85. The insertion (or addition) of a consonant, in such cases as those mentioned below, is probably always due to some false association or wrong etymology, but the specific

¹The phenomena of dissimilation have been well classified by M. Grammont in La dissimilation consonantique dans les langues indo-européennes et dans les langues romanes, 1895. For metathesis, see Zs., XXVIII, 1.

E. Schooled. The Rossionantischer, The wirestrunger & Terrie tres into him., Terrie assamilation and metathera. Gottinger, 1919 - Pec. by M. L. in 25. 24, 597 - 25 and by E. Arinar wife wife after a color of the form of the himself of the himself

parpathon papathon papethon bulest (n) a < balinta diash(r) e < iashidem robin -> rolly rough hoor preser fronda a Junda terr lies - y rogationen > rogazo horzo hozazo langoska < loruska pavimen fraiman parimen corona coronda 82 himmes ender Provençal Phonology. ~ 5t u paintre cause often cannot be ascertained; the added consonant arprivip seems to be generally a liquid or a nasal:-CENTRE toldre alhondre -s < aliunde: V. L. *aliunder? ester consi = cossi < eccu' sic: analogy of the prefix co-con-. Cf. § 76, (1), CATLAR LAW enclutge < incūdinem: cf. French enclume. fondra fondas tunda engal = egal < aquālem: analogy of the prefix e- en-. Cf. § 76, (1), hapalho> risoprafic invern = ivern < hibërnum: hi- mistaken for the prefix in-; cf. Italian Figure Tro inverno, etc. parven (hence parvensa) < parëntem (parëre): analogy of ferven, serven, noncu or of espaven, espavensa, or influence of parui, etc.? destrunsa renliquir penchenar < pectinare: analogy of pencheire, penchura? perdris = perditz < perdicem: progressive assimilation? Cf. French * territem > tertice aliende > alhondre Yr . . . pouzer = pouse < politicem: confusion with polgar < politicare. refreitor = refeitor < refectorium: association with refreidar (freit). renlinquir = relinquir < relinquere: analogy of e- en-; cf. reforsar and French renforcer. la out > lavout, hence early wont for be ago less, on the able 205-7 for out or one 86. Metathesis is not very common in Provençal, although a few texts offer many examples; it is apparently restricted to liquids and nasals: arman - contelance cabirol = *cabriol < capreolum. cocodrilla < crocodilum: cf. Italian coccodrillo. cambra cramba craba = cabra < capra. enfrondar = *enfondrar < French effondrer < ? *infundulare. escremir < skirmon: cf. French escrimer. estanc < stagnum: cf. French étang. esturmen = estrument < instrumentum: cf. Italian stormento. formir = fromir < frumjan: cf. French formir, etc. himatic bondice freir = ferir < ferire.grada = garda < * warda. grepir = guerpir < wërpan. lhun = nulh < nullum: analogy of negun. Cf. Fr. nune part (Balzac). presseguier (also pess-) < * préssega < përstca. renc (also regne) < rēgnum. englist a sun a literal

it is lightly to make The > channed

embor in

live

trida < τίγριδα.

transpare = temperare

tronar < tonitruare + thronus.

trugill < torculum.

trobar <? turbāre: see Körting.

1. In ginhol = genolh < genücülum the palatalization is shifted from the liquid to the nasal. In lunh = nulh < nullum, on the other hand, the palatalization remains at the end of the word, but the liquid and the nasal change places.

DISSIMILATION.

87. Dissimilation, like the other irregular phenomena, affects mainly liquids and nasals, particularly r; it is not, however, entirely confined to these classes. The two nasals, m and n, are similar enough to undergo dissimilation. Some of the cases go back to Vulgar Latin, while others are peculiar to Provençal or to Provençal and French. In the table below, a dash indicates the total disappearance of the consonant in question.

 $\beta + \beta > \beta + \cdots$ (v + \cdots): $hab\bar{e}bam > *a\beta\bar{e}a > avia, *viv\bar{a}ci\bar{a}rium > viacier, <math>viv\bar{a}cius > viatz$. Vianda, whatever its ultimate origin may be, was probably borrowed from French.

kw + kw > k + kw: $qu\bar{i}nque > c\bar{i}nque > cinc$.

1+1>r+l, -+l, d+l: calaměllum> calamel caramel,
*umbilīcŭlum> emborígol, flēbilem> fleble freble feble, ŭlulāre> ulular udolar. Perhaps püs = plüs < plūs is to be explained by dissimilation, occurring in such phrases as plus
lare, plus lone.

m + m > n + m: memorāre > membrar nembrar (renembransa).

m+n>m+r: *cominicāre> comenegar comergar, *indominicātum> endomeniat endomergat, mancipium> mansip massip marsip, manicum> margue, monāchum> mongue morgue.

downative don broken

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n+m>r+m: anima> anma arma, *minimāre> mermar.

n+n>n+r, r+n; ? d+n: canŏnicum > canónegue canorgue, venēnum > verin; nec ūnum > negün degün? (cf. Andalusian and Asturian dengun, Catalan dingu, apparently from nec ūnum + ningūlum).

nobody

r+r>r+-, -+r, 1+r; *Bernhardum> Bernart Bernat, marmor> marbre marme, proprium> propri propi; die

Mércuri (influenced by die Vénéris) > dimercres dimercres,

grandem rem> grance ganre, pr(eh) ěnděre> prenre penre, proprium>

présbyter> prestre pestre; arbitrium> albire, *Arvěrnium>

haning &

Alvernhe, peregrīnus > pele(g) rīnus > peleris, pūrpūra > polpra.

8+8>—+s: *spasmāre > (espasme) pasmar (cf. French pâmer), perhaps through confusion of the initial es— with the prefix ex—.

t+t?>--+t: stationem?> sazo (cf. French saison, Spanish sazon.

y + y > y + -: *disjejūnāre > *disieunāre > *disy'nāre > dis'nar disnar.

vericetic : > * watwach > quarach giract

generalis describing of polation

acide y brilla hora

"malte tar i conte

III. MORPHOLOGY.

88. The most important morphological developments are common to all, or nearly all, the Romance languages. They may therefore be ascribed, in their early stages, to Vulgar Latin, although direct evidence of their beginnings is scanty.

I. DECLENSION.

NOUNS.

- 89. (1) During the late Vulgar Latin and early Romance period neuter nouns gradually became masculine; this change was doubtless due in part to phonetic developments which obliterated distinctive endings: dōnum>don, m.; nōmen>nom, m. Mare, however, became almost always feminine in Gaul: la mar. Some neuter plurals in -a, used mainly in a collective sense, were preserved and eventually became feminine singulars: fŏlium fŏlia>folha, f. sg.; lignum ligna>lenha, f. sg.; so luogua, poma, prada, beside loc, pom, prat (and, by analogy, grasa, beside gras < gradus); similarly labia>lavias, f. pl.
- (2) Masculine and feminine nouns usually kept their original gender. Abstract nouns in -or, however, regularly became feminine in Gaul, other abstract nouns being mostly feminine in Latin: honorem > onor, f.; saporem > sabor, f. With the exception of manus, which generally retained its gender, feminine nouns of the second and fourth declensions, unless they

passed into the first declension (pirus > pera), became masculine, to conform to the usual -us type: fraxinus > fraisnes, m.; pīnus > pins, m. Attracted by such words as these, arbor became masculine. There were some other less important shifts.

1. Juventus, passing into the second declension, became masculine i. h. and by m.; (ioven); but we find also ioventut, f. Laus became masculine in Pro- harmally only vengal; fin, on the other hand, is always feminine. Merula > merle, m. | heat-cl. hale. Correits, linh, both m., occur beside correia corrigia, linha linea. Other similar changes might be noted. Pr. dia (also di), like Latin dies, is usually masculine.

- 90. Some nouns passed from the fourth to the second declension in the classic Latin period (domus, ficus); the rest doubtless followed in Vulgar Latin (frūctus,1 gradus, manus). Fifth declension nouns in -ies went over, for the most part, to the first declension: 2 dies > dia, facies > fassa, glacies > glassa, rabies > rabia; but we find also di, fatz, glatz (ratge is probably French), following the third declension type. Fifth declension nouns which did not shift to the first came to be declined after the model of the third (fides, res, spes). The five declensions were therefore reduced to three, presumably in Vulgar Latin times. Among these there were some exchanges: polvera, vergena; cf. § 89, (1), (2), 1.
- or. The use of cases became more and more restricted in Vulgar Latin, prepositional constructions taking the place of pure case distinction. At the beginning of the Romance period, nouns probably had, in unstudied speech, only two cases in constant use: a nominative and an accusative or accusative-ablative. These two cases were generally retained

¹ Cato uses fructi.

² The process began in classic Latin: materies materia, etc.

in Provençal, for the second and third declensions, until the literary period: we may call them nominative and objective.

- (1) The locative, which had almost vanished in classic Latin, lingered in Vulgar Latin only in names of places. It has left no sure traces in Provençal.
- (2) The vocative, in classic Latin, was like the nominative for most words; in Vulgar Latin it probably disappeared, except in Church phrases, such as mī dŏmīne. In Provençal we find the nominative regularly used in address (chanzos, companh, emperaire, ioglars, Papiols), although the objective occasionally occurs in its stead (barons pl., ioglar malastrüc, trachor).
- (3) The genitive, in the popular language, was little by little replaced by other constructions—commonly by the ablative with de or by the dative; the beginnings of this substitution may be observed as early as Plautus. Among Provençal nouns—aside from such learned forms as ancianor, christianor, companhor, paianor, parentor—we find remnants of the genitive only in a few compound words, as diious < die Jövis, and in the standing phrase es mestier < est ministérii.

calvesing < caput sting RomixHV333

- (4) The dative, which in most words had the same ending as the ablative, came to be replaced, in the greater part of the Empire, by the accusative with ad; this construction, too, goes back as far as Plautus. Provençal nouns retain no traces of the dative.
- (5) The ablative, after the fall of final m (§ 55, M) and the loss of quantitive distinctions in unstressed syllables (§ 21), differed little or not at all from the accusative in the singular of nearly all nouns: causăm causā, dōnum dōnō, patrēm patrē, frūctūm frūctū, dīēm dīē. Furthermore, some prepositions (especially in) were used both with the accusative and

Homer Homes of months washing a line of

XL4 (35, 158.



with the ablative. It was inevitable, then, that the two cases should be confounded in the singular, and we have evidence of such confusion as early as the first century of our era; this led gradually to a substitution of the accusative for the ablative in the plural, the accusative plural being somewhat commoner and frequently simpler than the ablative. We may, therefore, take the accusative as the basis of the Provençal objective, remembering, however, that this accusative has been more or less blended with the ablative.

- (6) The two-case declension remained theoretically in use in Provençal literature through the 14th century; but in texts later than the 12th, cases are often confused. From the spoken language the declension disappeared, in the west (as in Catalan), before the literary period; in the centre and east, probably in the 12th century; in the north, in the 13th. The case preserved was usually the objective, but sometimes the nominative. Some nouns in -aire -ador kept both forms, with a differentiation of meaning.
- 92. In the discussion of declensions some phonetic peculiarities must not be overlooked:—
- (1) In the nom. pl. of the 2d declension, a stressed e, followed in the next syllable by final—i, would regularly give i (cf. § 27, 1); but the e is preserved by the analogy of the nom. and obj. sg. and the obj. pl.: capīllī> cabel, mīssī> mes, quētī> quet, sērī> ser. We do, however, find cabil, and (perhaps by analogy) auzil < aucēllī.
- (2) In the nom. pl. of the 2d declension, a c or g before the final -i would regularly be palatalized (cf. § 55, C, G); but it is preserved from palatalization by the analogy of the other three forms: $am\bar{\iota}c\bar{\iota} > amic$, $l\bar{\iota}ong\bar{\iota} > lonc$.

- (3) For the development of a t between a palatal or an n and a final s, see § 82, S: annos > anz, filios > filz.
- (4) For the simplification of final scs, sts to cs, ts, see § 78,
 2: *bŭscus? > bocs, trīstes > tritz.
- (5) For the history of -arius and -tōrius, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, 1.
- 93. (1) Nouns whose objective singular ended in s were invariable in the earlier part of the literary period; bracchium > bratz, cŏrpus > cors, imperatrīcem > emperairitz, fascem > fais, latus > latz, lūcem > lūtz, mīssum > mes, nasum > nas, ŏpus > ops, ŭrsum > ors, pīscem > peis, pēctus > peitz, prētium > pretz, tēmpus > tems, vērsum > vers, vīsum > vis, vōcem > votz. Later, however, a plural (originally obj. pl.) was made for such words by adding -es, generally at a time when final ts had been reduced to s (§ 64): brasses, corses, messes, peisses, verses; examples occur as early as the end of the 12th century.
- (2) Other invariable nouns are midons, sidons, and often laus and res; the last two sometimes have an objective lau, re. Midons comes from the Church Latin mī domine, which was popularized by the substitution of the Provençal don for domine and the addition of the nom. -s; the term was transferred from religious to feudal, and thence to amatory use, and came to mean 'my lady.' Mi domina was common in Church Latin. Sidons is formed on the model of midons.
 - (3) For nouns in tš, see § 63, (1): *disdūctum> desdüg, frūctum> früch, gaudium> gaug, nŏctem> nuech. Such words were very often written in the plural with -gz, which was pronounced either ts or tš. The pronunciation ts is attested by such rhymes as malfagz: alumenatz.
 - 94. Infinitives used substantively conformed to the 2d de-

Altali.

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clension type: lauzars lauzar (like focs foc), rire-s rire (like fabre-s fabre): see § 96. The same thing is true of masculine post-verbal nouns: (getar) getz get, (guidar) guitz guit, (lansar) lans (invariable).

FIRST DECLENSION.

95. This declension came to include a part of the fifth and also some neuter plurals of the second and third. With the exception of dia (nearly always masculine) and of a few learned words, it contained only feminine nouns. As the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular early became identical, leaving only one form in the singular, the plural forms were reduced to one, the accusative crowding out the nominative; this substitution, which must have been begun before the Provençal period, was doubtless helped by the identity of nominative and accusative plural in feminine nouns of the third declension. Causa will serve as a model:—

causa > causa causa > causa

causa * causas > causas
causas > causas

- 1. Dia sometimes has a nom. sg. dias, following the example of other masculine nouns; also be dea; his dia has dias dias
- 2. Many feminine proper names, in Gaul and elsewhere, developed a Low Latin declension -a -āne(m) or -a -ēne(m), as Anna Annāne. Provençal has few traces of this inflection. The word putana <\pre>? pūttda + ānem + a may be a remnant of it. Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 27; E. Philipon, Les accusatifs en -on et en -ain, Rom., XXXI, 201.

SECOND DECLENSION.

96. This declension came to include the fourth. With the exception of mas, 'hand' (generally feminine), it contained only masculine nouns. The different types may be illustrated by fŏcus, dōnum, faber:—

the more mander from my any implements. To follow to pape so happen

§ 98]

PROVENÇAL MORPHOLOGY.

főcus > focs dönum * dönus > dons faber > faure fabres főcum > foc dönum > don fabrum > fabre fábres főcī > foc döna * dönī > don fabrī > fabre főcos > focs döna * dönos > dons fabros > fabres

For the c of foci, see § 92, (2). For *donus, etc., see § 89 (1). Nom. fabre is due to the analogy of the other three cases; the s of fabres is borrowed from the prevailing focs type.

- 1. Neuters which long preserved their gender often have no -s in the nom. sg.: segle or segles. Nouns in -age from -aticum commonly have no -s: corage, damnage, message, senhorage; but forms with -s occur also. Learned nouns in -i from -ium regularly have no -s: breviari, emperi, iuzizi, testimoni. Post-verbal nouns, on the other hand, usually take the nom. -s: albires, blasme-s, consires, desires (cf. § 94). By the analogy of the fabre-s, segle-s, blasme-s types, many masculines in -e sometimes drop the -s: clergue-s, diable-s, morgue-s, oncle-s, poble-s. Maestre, prestre regularly have no -s.
- 2. Most proper names are declined like common nouns: Arnauts Arnaut, Boecis Boeci, Enrics Enric, Lozoics Lozoic, Peire-s Peire. Many proper names, however, developed in Gaul and elsewhere, from the 9th century on, a Low Latin declension -us -ōne(m), as Petrus Petrōnis (cf. § 95, 2): hence Carle-s Carlo, Peire-s Peiro, etc.; so Bergonhs Bergonho, etc.
 - 3. Mas, being usually feminine, has a nom. pl. mas.
 - 4. For pagadi, salvi, soli, etc., and beill, peccah, efanh, etc., see § 51, 1.

THIRD DECLENSION.

- 97. This declension absorbed a part of the fifth: cf. § 90.
- 98. Nouns whose stem was different in the nominative and the accusative singular, reconstructed the nominative to correspond to the accusative, the new form being similar to the original genitive: papilio papilionem > papilionis papilionem, pēs pēdem > pēdis pēdem. The change began in the Vulgar Latin period. Exceptions to the rule are names of persons,

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91

unless they ended in -ans or -ens: něpos nepōtem > neps nebot; but amans amantem > * amantis amantem > amáns amán.

- I. Carnis for caro is used by classic writers. Grüis for grüs occurs in the Appendix Probi III, belonging perhaps to the 3d century. Papiliönis, pědis, travis = trabs, and some others are found in the 8th century Glossary of Reichenau.
- 99. Masculine nouns of the third declension, early in the Provençal period, made their nominative plural conform to the second declension type, thus distinguishing it from the objective plural: pater patrem patres patres paire paire paire paires (cf. Old French and Italian). Feminines, on the other hand, kept the nominative plural in -s: mater matrem matres matres matres maire maire maires maires.
- 100. · A few neuter nouns, becoming masculine in Vulgar Latin, developed distinctively masculine forms in the singular: gěnus gěnus > * gěněris * gěněrem > genres genre; so fülgur (>fŭlger) > *fŭlgerem > fouzer. Most neuters, however, kept in the singular their original stem: semen > sem, tempus But those in -men regularly, and those in -r sometimes, took an -s in the nominative singular: flumen flumen > flüms flüm, marmor marmor > marme-s marme; cor, in the literary language, usually has no nominative -s. In the plural most neuters brought their forms into harmony with the masculine type, but those in -us kept the -s throughout: (caput>) capus * capum capita capita > caps cap cap caps, cor cor corda corda > cor cor cors, nomen nomen nomina nomina > noms nom nom noms; but corpus corpora corpora > cors cors cors. Mare, becoming feminine, was declined thus: mars mar mars mars.
 - 1. Gčnus also became ges, which was used as an adverb.
- 101. The third declension comprises three principal types:
 (1) nouns which in Latin had no difference of stem or of



accent between the nominative and the accusative singular;

- (2) those which had a difference of stem but not of accent;
- (3) those which had a difference of accent.
 - (1) Nouns with no difference of stem or of accent:-

```
MASCULINE
                         > paire-s
                                          sõl
                                               > sol-s
canis > cas
                 pater
canem > ca
                 patrem > paire
                                         sölem > sol
canes > ca
                 patres > paire
                                          söles > sol
canes > cas
                 patres > paires
                                          soles > sols
                        FEMININE
finis^1 > fis
                  mater > maire
                                         fides > fes
f\bar{\imath}nem > fi
                                         fidem > fe
                 matrem > maire
fines > fis
                 matres > maires
                                         fides > fes
fines > fis
                  matres > maires
                                         fides > fes
```

- 1. Masculine nouns of this type which etymologically had no -s in the nom. sg., often took one, even in the earliest times.
- 2. Laus and res were often invariable, but were sometimes declined like sols and fes.
 - (2) Nouns with a difference of stem but not of accent:—

MASCULINE		FEMININE		NEUTER	
pons * pon	itis > ponz	pars * par	rtis >> partz	<i>lūmen</i> > lüm−s	
pontem	>pon	partem	> part	<i>lūmen</i> ≯lüm	
pontes	> pon	partes	> partz	<i>lūmĭna</i> > lüm	
pontes	>ponz	partes	> partz	<i>lūmĭna</i> > lüms	

NAMES OF PERSONS

comes > coms	hõmo > om
comitem > comte	höminem > ome omne2
comites > comte	hömines > ome omne
comites > comtes	hőmines > omes omnes

- 1. For other neuter types, see § 100.
- 2. Om later developed an inflection oms om om oms.
- 3. Lex, rex became leis lei leis leis, reis rei rei reis.

¹ See § 89, I.

² See § 47, (3).

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(3) Nouns with a difference of accent: -

MASCULINE		FEMININE		
sěrmo * sermō	nis > sermos	ratio *ratiönis	> razos	
sermöneri	> sermo	ratiōnem	> razo	
sermõnes	> sermo	rationes	> razos	
sermõnes	> sermos	ratiōnes	> razos	

NAMES OF PERSONS IN -ANS, -ENS

amans * aman	tis > amáns	parens * parëntis	> paréns
amantem	> amán	parëntem	> parén
amantes	> amán (f. amáns)	parëntes	> parén (f. paréns)
amantes	> amáns	parëntes	> paréns

NAMES OF PERSONS NOT IN -ANS, -ENS

amātor	> amaire	sĕnior	> senher	mŭlier	> molher
amatōrem	> amador	seniörem	> senhor	mulièrem ¹	> molher
amatõres	> amador	seniõres	> senhọr	mulières	> molhers
amatōres	> amadors	seniõres	> senhors	mulières	> molhers
servitor	>-servire	baro	> bar	sŏror	> sorre sor2
servitörem	> servidor	barōnem	> baro	sorōrem	> soror .
servitõres	> servidor	barōnes	> baro	sorõres	> sorors
	/ 202,120,2				

1. After the same pattern as senher, we have pastor pastorem > pastre pastor, etc.; after the bar pattern, *companio (Einf., § 43) *companionem > companh companho, *fillo (Körting) *fillōnem? > fel felo, glätto (= glüto) gluttōnem > glot gloto, lairo lairōnem > laire lairo, lõo (treated like the name of a person) leōnem > leu leo, etc. On the model of amaire, servire, we find trobaire trobadór, etc., iauzire iauzidór, etc.; and, for the second and third conjugations, teneire tenedór, etc., beveire bevedór, etc. The inflection of such words became much confused, and some of them eventually developed double declensions: bars bar bars, barós baró baró barós; emperaires emperaire emperaires, emperadórs emperadór emperadór emperadór emperadórs. Some proper names follow the bar model: Bret Breto, Folc-s (Folques) Folcó (later Folcós Folcó), Gasc Gascó, Uc Ugó, (later Ucs Uc); cf. § 96, 2.

¹ See § 16, 1.

²See § 52, (1), 1.

ADJECTIVES.

- 102. What has been said concerning the inflection of nouns applies also to adjectives: see §§ 91-101. For pronominal adjectives see §§ 114 ff.
- I. The operation of phonetic laws sometimes results in a difference in stem between the m. and the f.: bos bona, larcs larga, nutz nuda, preon preonda; mut muda, presat presada. For pauc pauca, rauc rauca, see § 65, C, I. For -arius -aria, -tōrius -tōria, see § 23, 1; § 73, Ry, I.
- 2. Adjectives in -s or -š are undeclinable in the m. sg.: glorios, perfieg. Those in -s originally had no inflectional ending in the m. pl., but later they sometimes added -es: divers diverses, frances franceses. For the pl. of those in š, see § 93, (3).
- 103. We must recognize two classes of adjectives: (1) those which in Latin distinguish the feminine from the masculine; (2) those which do not.
- 1. Adjectives like acer, which, though inflected after the 3d declension type, could distinguish the m. from the f. in the nom. sg., fell into one or the other—usually the first—of the following classes (agre agra, alegre alegra; terrestre terrestre).
 - (1) Masculine and feminine different: —

LINE	FEMINI.	NE
> bęls	bĕlla	> bęla
> bel	běllam	> bela
> bel	běllæ * běllas	> belas
> bels	běllas	> belas
> paubre-s	paupëra	> paubra
> paubre	paupëram	> paubra
> paubre	paupēræ-*as	> paubras
> paubres	paupēras	> paubras
	> bęls > bęl > bęl > bęls > paubre-s > paubre > paubre	> bęls bělla > bęl běllam > bęl bělla * běllas > bęls běllas > paubre-s paupěra > paubre paupěram > paubre paupěræ-*as

(2) Masculine and feminine alike: —

MASCULINE	FEMININE
gentīlis > gentils	gentīlis > gentils
gentilem > gentil	gentīlem > gentil
gentīles > gentil	gentīles > gentils
gentīles > gentils	gentīles > gentils

heys d'(cono), cite series of adj. who may end in in m. fl. norm; beli mali adi aquesti malanti etc. . dial. surarival. See anglade 129. Freezewed (-i q-15) in some mod. dial

PROVENÇAL MORPHOLOGY.

[\$ 107

- 1. Some adjectives of the second class were attracted into the first either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal; this happened to all adjectives in -és, -able, ible, and also to comun, dous, fol, freble, graile, len, mol, noble, paubre (early), rude, trist: cortes cortesa, durable durabla; comuna, doussa, etc. Some kept both inflections: dolens, dolens or dolenta; grans, grans or granda, etc.
- 104. In impersonal constructions we frequently find a nominative singular without -s, which is apparently a survival of the Latin neuter: m'es bel (greu, parven, semblan, etc.) que ... But the form with -s sometimes occurs in the same constructions: m'es greus que ...
 - 1. For es mestier, see § 91, (3).

96

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- 105. Most adverbs of manner were formed by adding -men (-ment, -mens, or -menz) to the feminine singular of the adjective: belamen. These adverbs were originally ablative phrases: serēna měnte, etc. In Provençal the specific meaning of the -men was forgotten, but the two parts might still be separated by an intervening word: epsa... ment. When two adverbs in -men were used together, the ending was generally affixed to only one, oftener the first. Bona and mala could be used as adverbs without the suffix.
 - 1. For the adverbial ending -s, see § 82, S, 3.

COMPARISON.

- 106. Adjectives and adverbs regularly formed their comparative by prefixing plüs to the positive, and their superlative by prefixing the definite article to the comparative: cara, plüs cara, la plüs cara. This method of comparison goes back to Vulgar Latin times.
 - 1. 'Than' is expressed by que and de.
 - 107. Some adjectives preserved their old comparative in

many renter adj. with as ide: next has there fort grow force sol etc. Some abs. with it a jein to a civil, a femoso, a forces, a destre, a senestre, on bree; and with he say or file a orter, a acadenda, a certas, a longed, de primas. Some with a + - is a genetics, a reverses. As covoloons. a few, by free, part. + the insertion of a surjective (or were), respective (or we be in the constant of th

-ior. These comparatives had an inflection similar to that of senher: cf. § 101, (3) and § 101, (3), 1.

POSITIVE		COMPARATIV	R
altus: *bellātus = bēllus: gēnītus: *grēvis = gravis: grössus: laib:	gen why greu gros lai	bellaire bellázer-s génser-s greuger handle grueysser láiger hand	aussor bellazor gensor
largus: lčvis: lčngus: (grandis): (bčnus): (paucus):	larc leu lonc (gran) (bon) (pauc)	lęuger máier melher menre-s	largor lonhor maior melhor menor
nūgālis : (malus) : (mŭltus) : sŏrdĭdus :	(mal) (molt) sorde	pęier sordęier	nüalhor peior plüsor ¹ sordeior

108. The following neuter comparatives were used as adverbs: genseis genses gensetz (< génser influenced by longeis, sordeis); longeis longeitz <? *longitius (< longiter + longius); mais < magis; melhs < mělius; mens < minus; peitz < pějus; sordeis < sordidius; viatz < vivacius. Mais, melhs, mens, peitz were used also as neuter pronouns. Viatz lost its comparative sense.

109. A few adjectives, most or all of them learned, preserved the old superlative form with an intensive sense: altisme, carisme, pesme, prosme, santisme.

¹ Perhaps from a fusion of plūs and pluriores = plūres. Cf. Fr.

NUMERALS.

110. The cardinal numerals are: —

ün	onze	vint e ün	dozent
dọs	dotze	vint e dos	tresent
tres	tretze	trenta	quatre cen
quatre	quatorze	quaranta	cinc cens (de)
cinc	quinze	cinquanta	mil
sęis	setze, sedze	sessanta	dos milia
sęt	detz e set	setanta.	tres melia
uęg	dętz e uęg	quatre vint	quatre mila
nou	dętz e nou	nonanta	cinc milliers (de)
dętz	vint, vin	cent, cen	cent miria

III. The first two numbers were inflected as follows: —

u(n)s üna	düi dọi	doas dos
ü(n) üna	dos (düi)	doas dos

Düi doi are from Vulgar Latin $d\tilde{u}\tilde{i} = d\tilde{u}o$; dos is from $d\tilde{u}os$, doas from duas. Tres has a form trei (originally nom. m.), patterned after düi, and a form treis, which seems to be a cross between tres and trei. For the dialect forms of onzesetze, see §76, (1), Ndc', and §80, Dc'. Cen, multiplied by another number, took a plural form when used substantively; when used adjectively, it generally did not, but we find dozentas with a feminine noun. Mil had four plurals, milia miria melia mila; milliers is a noun.

- 1. As an example of a longer compound numeral, we have cen e quatre vint e ueg.
- 2. From ambo we have the obj. forms, m. and f., ams, ambas. Ambo combined with duī (duos duas), and perhaps influenced by Pr. ab (§ 65, P, 2), had this inflection:

amdui abdui ambedui amdoas abdos ambedos amdoas

112. The ordinal numerals had separate forms for the two genders; the masculine forms followed the second declension type, the feminine forms, the first declension. After 5th, they were made by adding to the cardinal numeral the originally distributive ending -ēnus -ēna.

primięr, primięra	seizę(n), seizęna	onzę(n), onzęna
segon(t), segonda	setę(n), setęna	dozę(n), dozęna
terz, terza	oche(n), ochena	vintę(n), vintęna
quart, quarta	nove(n), novena	cente(n), centena
quint, quinta	deze(n), dezena	mile(n), milena

- 113. Beside primier we find premier prümier promier (§ 44, 1, 3), and also prim and primeiran; for the developments of the ending –ier, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, 1. Terz, terza regularly became ters, tersa (§ 73, Rty). Such forms as seconda, tercia, sexta, octava, nona, decima are learned.
- 1. As an example of a compound ordinal numeral, we have vintena tersa.

PRONOUNS.

- 114. Under this head will be treated not only pronouns and pronominal adjectives, but also articles.
- strative pronouns and adjectives had two sets of forms, according as they were accented or unaccented (§ 19). Ille, when stressed and used pronominally, became a disjunctive personal pronoun of the third person; when unstressed and used pronominally, it furnished the conjunctive forms of the third person; when unstressed and used adjectively, it developed into a definite article. Ipse had similar uses. These differentiations must have begun in Vulgar Latin times.
- vulgar Latin. The neuter illud disappeared, being replaced by illum. Through the influence of quī cūjus cūī, *illī illū-

jus¹ illūī¹ came to be used beside illē illīus illī. The feminine had, beside illīus illī, a genitive and dative illæ; through the analogy of illūjus illūī, illæ was expanded into illæjus¹ illæi.¹ Illīus then went out of use. In the plural, illōrum (which in some regions, by the analogy of illūjus illūī, had a form *illūrum) crowded out illārum; this illōrum came to be used also as a dative.

Ipse and iste followed in the main the same course as ille.

ARTICLES.

117. The indefinite article comes from unus, which seems to have been occasionally so used even in classic Latin:—

ü(n)s	üna
ü(n)	üna

- vhich, being used as a proclitic, regularly lost its first syllable (§ 19). 'Ille (*ittī), illum, illī, illos, illa, illas became respectively le (li), lo, li or lhi,² los, la, las. Le, lo, li, lhi, la frequently elided their vowel before another vowel (l'an, l'arma), becoming l or lh. Furthermore, le, lo, li, lhi, los, in the intertonic position after a vowel (vé lo páire), regularly lost their vowel (vel páire)⁸; and, by analogy, la and las were sometimes reduced to l and ls. We have, then, beside the full forms, the proclitics l, lh, and the enclitics l, lh, ls. Inasmuch as l might be vocalized before a dental,² the enclitics l and ls sometimes became u and us (a'u porter, e'uz dias antix).
 - (2) The particles e and que, with the enclitic l, formed

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¹These forms existed as early as the 1st century of our era. See Zs., XXVI, 600, 619. Ejus, ei may have had some influence.

² See § 67, (2).

^{8 \$ 45.}

^{4 § 74, (2).}

note: la us

combinations el and quel. Quel, being understood as qu'el, gave rise to a form el.

- (3) In the f. nom. sg. there is a form li or lhi, which is hard to explain. The most likely theory is that when the masculine $qu\bar{\iota}$ took the place of the feminine $qu\omega$ (see § 133), the masculine * $ill\bar{\iota}$ came to be used beside illa, for the feminine. The Provençal feminine li (lhi) which resulted was strongly supported by the analogy of a feminine possessive mi, beside ma (see § 127).
 - (4) The regular forms are, therefore, the following: —

		M	ASCU	LIN	E		FE	IININ	Œ	
C '	(nom.:	lę	li	1	e l	la	li	lhi	1	lh
og.	{	lọ	1	u	ęl	la	1			
T D1	{ nom.: { obj.:	li	lhi	1	lh	las				
L1.	obj.:	lọs	ls	us		las	ls			

In many texts the objective forms lo, los, is are used in the nominative.

- 1. The m. obj. sg. le, obj. pl. les, which occur in a few texts, are doubtless French. So is the enclitic form s for ls or us: de s, entre s, e s.
- 2. The enclitic forms combine as follows with the prepositions a, con, de, en, entre, iosta, per, sus, and with the conjunctions e, ni, o, que, si: al au als aus, col, del deu dels deus (des), enl el els eus, entrels, iostal, pel pels, sul suls; eil (= e lhi) el (= e lo), nils, oill (= o lhi), quel, sil. They combine freely with other words: eral (= era le), fals (= fa los), etc.

119. In some southwestern and some southeastern dialects we find forms so, sos, sa, sas, coming from ipse,

Personal Pronouns.8

120. In Vulgar Latin ego lost its g (§ 55, G). The dative,

¹Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 104.

² See Suchier in Grundriss, I, p. 627.

³Cf. A. von Elsner, Ueber Form und Verwendung des Personalpronomens im Altprovenzalischen, 1886.

mīhi, was preserved only in its contracted form, $m\bar{i}$. After the pattern of $m\bar{i}$, $*t\bar{i}$ and $*s\bar{i}$ were created for the other persons.

121. Provençal has no nominative forms that are regularly unaccented. In the conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive), the direct object is distinguished from the indirect; elsewhere there is no such distinction.

CONJUNCTIVE FORMS.

122. Latin $m\bar{e} > me$, $m\bar{i} > mi$, $n\bar{o}s > nos$; $t\bar{e} > te$, $t\bar{i} > ti$, $v\bar{o}s > vos$; $s\bar{e} > se$, $t\bar{i} > si$. Me mi, te ti, se si, used as proclitics before a vowel, or as enclitics after a vowel, were reduced to m, t, s: m'ama, t'apela, s'es; 0m, 0

FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE) Sg.: me mi m te ti t se si s Pl.: nos ns vos us se si s

- The pronouns of the first and second persons could, of course, be used reflexively.
- 123. The conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive) come in the main from the proclitic ille: illi, illum, illōrum (*illūrum), illos, illa, illas became respectively li or lhi, lo, lor (lür), los, la, las. When used proclitically or enclitically, under the conditions described in § 118, (1), li (lhi), lo, los were reduced to l (lh), l, ls; and l was sometimes vocalized. O<hōc was employed also, meaning 'it.' The adverb inde became ent en n (and, through the analogy of me m, te t, se s, also ne), which was often used as a pro-

Provençal Morphology.

§ 124]

noun with the sense 'of it', 'of them', sometimes 'of him', 'of her'; nos en > non, vos en > von. The adverb $\hbar ic$ became i, meaning 'here' or 'there,' which served also as a dative pronoun, 'to it,' 'to them'; it was then always an enclitic, forming a diphthong with a preceding vowel; it regularly took the place of li in the constructions loi = lo li, lai = la li. The forms are:—

		M	ASCU	LI	NE		1	EMI	NIN	E			NEU	TER	
Sg.	{	ent li lo	ẹn lhi l	n l u	nę lh	i	ent li la	ęn lhi	n l	nę lh	i	ent i lo	-		nę
Pl. •	{	ent lor los	en lür ls	n		nę	ent lor las	ęn lür	n	nę					

- I. Les for los is doubtless French. Los, ls were occasionally used for m. lor; lors, which occurs rarely for lor, looks like a cross between lor and los.
- 2. The following combinations illustrate the use of the enclitic forms: aura i, be i, e l, laissa n, no i, qui ll, si ls.

DISJUNCTIVE FORMS.

124. Vulgar Latin * $\check{e}o$ or * $\check{e}u > eu$ ieu (§ 30), which before an enclitic became e ie (\widehat{e} l, ie \widehat{n}). The other forms explain themselves. The nominative tü, from the beginning of the 13th century, was sometimes used for te after prepositions; this use may have been suggested by the existence of $l\ddot{u} = \frac{1}{2}$ thim'; § 125, (1). Nos + en > non, vos + en > von.

	FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON	THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)
Sg.	{ nom.: eu ieu e- ie- obj.: me mi	tü tę (ti?) tü	se si
Pl.	{ nom.: nos obj.: nos	vọs vọs	sę si

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103

- 1. We find, besides, the French or borderland forms ie iou iu yo for eu (gi and iey have been noted also), mei tei sei for me te se.
- 125. The disjunctive pronouns of the third person (not reflexive) come from accented ille, with the exception of o from hoc. Illūi, illōrum, illæjus, illæi lost their first syllable, perhaps through elision after a vowel; illūjus disappeared. Ille, *illī gave el elh, il ilh; el sometimes vocalized its l. Illūī became lüi, in some dialects reduced to lü. Illum became el elh. Illōrum (*illūrum) gave lor (lür). Illos became els (often eus) elhs. Illa, illam both gave ela elha. Illæjus became leis lieis (in some dialects reduced to lies). Illæi gave lei (dialectically le) liei. Illas became elas elhas.
- (2) In the feminine singular nominative there is, beside ela elha, a form ilh il. This is probably to be explained, like the feminine article lhi li, as coming from the masculine nominative *illi introduced into the feminine, and supported by the feminine possessive mi: see §118, (3).
- (3) Some dialects preserve the final -i of eli (m. pl. nom.) and ilhi ili (f. sg. nom.): see §51, 1.
- (4) Occasionally the conjunctive li (f. sg. obj.) and lo (neuter sg. nom.) were used as disjunctive forms. And sometimes the masculine lüi lü was used for the feminine.
 - (5) The forms are, therefore, the following: —

MASCULINE	FEMININE N	EUTER
(nom.: el eu elh il ilh	ela elha ilh il ilhi ili	ęl lọ
Sg. $\begin{cases} nom.: & \text{el eu elh il ilh} \\ obj.: & \text{lüi lü el elh} \end{cases}$	lęis lięis lięs lęi lięi lę ela li lüi lü	. Q
nom.: il ilh el elh eli	ęlas ęlhas	
Pl. {nom.: il ilh el elh eli obj.: lor lür els eus elhs	lor lür elas elhas	
In many texts the obje	ective forms els elhs, leis lei arc	e used

¹Cf. Thomas in Rom., XII, 334; Meyer-Lübke in Gram., II, page 104. For a different explanation, see Ascoli in Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 314, 396.

in the nominative. We then find occasionally a new objective, elses.

Possessives.

126. Beside měus měa, từus từa, sửus sửa, there existed in popular Latin the shorter forms *měs? *ma, *tǔs *ta, sửs sa. Of the two forms věster and võster, only the latter was used. *To supply the lack of a third person possessive denoting a plural possessor, illörum came to be employed as a possessive.

SINGULAR POSSESSIVE.

127. (1) The primarily atonic possessives come from the shorter Latin forms. The original masculine singular forms of the first person were displaced by mos mo, made on the analogy of tos to, sos so, which come regularly from $t\bar{u}s$ $t\bar{u}m$, $s\bar{u}s$, $s\bar{u}m$; so in the objective plural we find mos, corresponding to tos $t\bar{u}s$, $t\bar{u}s$, $t\bar{u}s$, $t\bar{u}s$, $t\bar{u}s$ gave mei, toi tii, soi siii (§34), which, however, were often replaced by the objective forms. $t\bar{u}s$ $t\bar{u}s$

(2) The forms are: —

		FIRST 1	PERSON	SE	COND PE	ERSON	1	HIRD PE	RSON
S~	(nom.:	mọs mọ mọn	ma mi	tọs		ta t	sọs		sa si
ωg.	(obj.:	mò mòn	ma mi	tọ	tọn	ta t	sọ	sọn	sa si
TD1	(nom.:	męi mos mos	mas	tọi	tüi tọs	tas	sọi	süi sọs	sas
I 1.	(obj.:	mọs	mas	tọs		tas	sọs		sas

They are generally used only adjectively, and without the definite article. In some early texts, however, tos and sos, preceded by the article, are used substantively.

^{*} a few positive saw of exerce is his work for it dements for exert 105

- 128. (1) The primarily tonic possessives come from the longer Latin forms. Měus měum měi měos > meus meu mei meus, which regularly became mieus etc. (§30); an analogical form mieu is found beside miei. In the feminine of the first person we have, instead of *mea, mieua and mia: the first of these two forms is evidently made up from the masculine; the second may be due partly to the analogy of mi, partly to a proclitic use of the word (§44, 4).¹ In the second and third persons the masculine forms are mainly, and the feminine forms partially, replaced by analogical formations based on the possessive of the first person; tũi, sũi, tũa, sũa, however, give regularly tọi tüi, sọi süi, toa tua, sọa sua (§8).
- (2) The forms follow, those of the third person (which correspond exactly to those of the second) being omitted:—

FIRST PERSON

Sg.	(nom.:	męus mięus	mia mięua
	(obj.:	męu mięu	mia mięua
Pl.	(nom.:	męi mięi mięu	mias mięuas
	(obj.:	męus mięus	mias mięuas

SECOND PERSON

Sg.	(nom. :	tęus tięus	tọa tua tiệua tia
	{ obj. :	tęu tięu	tọa tua tiệua tia
		tọi tüi tẹi tiệi tiệu tẹus tieus	toas tuas tieuas tias toas tuas tieuas tias

They may be used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

1. We occasionally find a neuter sg. nom. form without final -s: lo micu.

PLURAL POSSESSOR.

129. Nöster, vöster developed regularly after the pauper

¹ For a different explanation of *mia*, see *Gram.*, I, pp. 246-248; also Horning in Zs., XXV, 341. Cf. Fr. *moie*.

§ 131] PROVENÇAL MORPHOLOGY.

107

model: \$103, (1). The masculine singular nominative often took an -s: cf. \$96; \$101, (1). Some southeastern dialects preserved the -i of nostri: cf. \$51, 1. Beside vostra we occasionally meet vostri, due to the analogy of feminine mi, ti, si.

Sg. \begin{cases} nom.: nostre-s & nostra \\ obj.: nostre & nostra \\ vostre & vostra \\ vostre & vostra \\ vostra &

These forms are used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

I. In later times *lor* came to be inflected like a one-gender adjective: § 103, (2).

DEMONSTRATIVES.

- 130. Latin *idem* went out of use. Latin *is* was preserved only in the phrase *id ipsum* (ad id ipsum > ades), and in the combination *iccum*, in which it ceased to be recognized, so that *iccu'* was regarded as a synonym of *icce*.
- 131. (1) The demonstrative particles *ècce* and *èccu*' were often prefixed to pronouns in Vulgar Latin. Being thus proclitically used, they frequently lost their first syllable (§19); sometimes, however, under the influence of ac (as in ac sīc> aissi), they preserved it, assuming the vowel of ac: ecce illa> aicela, eccu' ista> aquesta; cf. §43, (2).
- (2) The suffix -met was used in Vulgar Latin as an intensive prefix. Its change of place was probably due to such phrases as sēmet ipsum, understood as sē mētipsum. The -t, before a vowel, regularly gives -d- (met-ipsum> medes); but we find, besides, -z- (< Lat. d), introduced perhaps through the analogy of id in id ipsum (*medipsum> mezeis); and also

H. Kjellman, Etude sur 6, 7.2. 1 dimensication on from 1501, 10 :

A CARLES

· · caisse

- -t- (< Lat. #), which may be the result of a combination of met- and id- (met-id-ipsum > * metdipsu > meteis).
- 132. The pronouns preserved, either in their simple form or combined with a prefix, are the following: —
- (1) Of hic only the neuter, hoc, was kept. Hoc>o; ecce hốc > aiço aisso, and ço so; eccu' hốc > aquo aco. All of these are invariable.
- (2) Ipse appears as eps epsa, eus eussa, eis eissa (with a m. pl. eisses and a neuter eis); the last forms are the commonest; for the development of the ps, see §79 and §80, Ps. Met-ipse gives (medips) medes, (meteish) meteis, and, more commonly, mezeis (f. mezeissa, neuter mezeis); see §131, (2). *Met-ipsimus becomes medesme-s, mesesme-s, meesme-s (§65, D), with feminine forms in -a. Unaccented tosum is probably one source of the neuter so: cf. § 132, (1). For the article (so, sa), see §119.
- (3) Ille, uncombined, developed into an article (§ 118) and a personal pronoun (§§ 123, 125), but went out of use as a demonstrative. Combined with ecce and eccu' it gave: aicel aissel, cel, sel; aquel. Echel (pronounced ekel?) seems to come from eccu' ille with its original initial vowel preserved. Ipse ille perhaps gave rise also to a sel, which ultimately coincided with the form coming from ecce ille. There is a neuter aicelo, perhaps aicel + o. Cel will illustrate the inflection of all these words; the forms are to be explained like those of the disjunctive personal pronoun (§ 125):—

Sg. {nom.: cel ceu celh cels¹ cellüi cela celha cil cilh cilha² obj.: cel ceu celh cellüi cela celha celei celeis celieis cilh

¹ Cels shows the influence of masculine nouns and adjectives.

^{*} Aquel has also aquilli. Cilha is evidently a combination of cilh and celha.

MASCULINE

FRMININE

D1	(nom. :	cil	cilh celh cels 1 celhs 2	celas celhas
1 10	(obj. :	cels	celhs ²	celas celhas

(4) Iste gave est, estz, esta, estas. Ecce iste became aicest (not common) and cest sest; eccu' iste became aquest echest, and chest. Aquest will illustrate the inflection; the forms are to be explained like those of cel:—

MASCULINE

FEMININE

Sg.	{ nom.: { obj.:	aquest aquest		aquesta aquesta	aquist	aquisti
Pl.	(nom.: (obj.:	aquist aquestz	aquisti aquetz	aquestas aquestas		

INTERROGATIVES AND RELATIVES.

133. The interrogative and relative pronouns were confused and combined in Vulgar Latin, $qu\bar{\imath}$ taking the place of $qu\bar{\imath}s$, and $qu\bar{\imath}d$ gradually encroaching on $qu\bar{\imath}d$. Furthermore, the masculine forms were used instead of the feminine, which disappeared. We have in Provençal no evidence of the survival of any other cases than the nominative, dative, and accusative singular and the nominative plural:—

MASCULINE AND FEMININE

NEUTER

	(nom.: quī	> qui	quid > que, (before vowel) quez
Sg	(nom.: quī dat.: cūī acc.: quĕn	> cüi	<i>cūī</i> > cüi
((acc.: quĕn	n > que	quid > que, (before vowel) quez
Pl.,	nom.; quī	> qui	qux > que

The distinction between que < question, que quez < question, and que < question could not be maintained; we have, then, simply three forms: a nom. sg. or pl. qui, a nom.-acc. sg. or pl. que (quez), a dat. sg. or pl. ciii (sometimes written question).

A mi

¹ Aquel has also aqueli.

² Aquel has also aquels and aquelses.

gentils

- 134. We have also qualis, which came to be inflected like fezels: see § 103, (2); the feminine singular, however, often dropped its –s, and sometimes took the ending –a (cal, cala). Quinam apparently became quina, which, understood as a feminine form, developed a masculine, quin. There seems to have been also a *quiniam (cf. quoniam?), which gave quinh, quinha. Cf. D. Behrens in the Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XVII, ii, 67–8, footnote. The phrase de unde became dont, don, which was often used with the meaning 'of which', 'of whom'.
 - 135. (1) In Provençal the interrogative pronouns are: qui, 'who 'or 'whom'; que quez, 'what'; ciii, 'to whom' or 'whom', 'to what' or 'what' (obj.); cals (either alone or preceded by the definite article, inflected as in § 134), 'which'; quin quinh, quina quinha, 'which'. Cals is used also as an adjective.
- (2) The relative pronouns are: qui, 'one who', indefinite (used also, in early texts and in southwestern Languedoc, as the regular relative pronoun for persons); que quez, 'who' or 'whom', 'which'; ciii, 'whom', 'which' (generally used as indirect object of a verb, or after a preposition); lo cals (inflected as in § 134), 'who' ('whom'), 'which'; don dont, 'of which', 'of whom'.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

- 136. The following words call for special mention: —
- (1) Alcüs $< *aliqu' \bar{u}nus = aliqu\bar{u} \bar{u}nus$, 'someone'. Inflection: alcüs, alcü(n); alcüna.
- (2) Alquant < aliquantum, aliquanti, 'somewhat', 'some'; diminutive, alquantet.
 - (3) Alques alque < aliquid, used as an invariable neuter

pronoun or adverb, 'something', 'somewhat'. The -s form, which originally developed before a vowel, was preferred because of the analogy of other neuter pronouns and adverbs. The preservation of the e is due to association with quez que. Alque was sometimes used as an adjective.

- (4) Als al au, used as an invariable neuter pronoun, 'something else'. Al (au) may have been detached from alques, understood as al ques. Meyer-Lübke, however, takes it, as well as Old French el, from *alum = aliud: Gram., II, p. 649. Als owes its -s to the analogy of other neuter pronouns, such as alques, eis, mais, melhs, mens, peis, etc.
- (5) Altre autre < alter, 'other', pronoun and adjective. A dative *altrūī, following illūī, goes back to Vulgar Latin. The Provençal forms autrüs, autrü show the influence of alcüs and negüs; autri belongs to the southeastern dialects (cf. aqueli, eli, nostri, tüti, etc.). Inflection:—

			FEMININE			
Sg.	(nom. : (obj. :	autre autre	autres autrüi	autrüs autrü	n Churce	autra autra
	(nom.: (obj.:					autras autras

- (6) Altretals autretals < alter talis; by dissimilation, atretals: by substitution of ai— (first syllable of aissi < ac sīc) for atre—, aitals; by fusion of aitals and atretals, aitretals; through analogy of atressi, atrestals. Cf. § 74, 2. Inflection like that of cals (§ 134).
- (7) Altretan atretan aitan atrestan etc. < alter + tantum: see altretals.
- (8) Cada un $< \kappa \alpha \tau \acute{a} + \bar{u}num$, 'every one'. The Greek preposition $\kappa \alpha \tau \acute{a}$ was introduced into the Latin territory, probably by Greek merchants, in stating prices: $\kappa \alpha \partial^2 \acute{b} \alpha = cata \ \bar{u}num$,

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κατὰ τρεῖς = cata trēs; hence cada ün, cada trei. Inflection: cada üs, cada ü(n); cada üna.

- (9) Calacom qualacom qualaquom, 'something', 'a little', seems to be a Provençal compound of cal and aco (§ 132), the last syllable of which was perhaps understood as com co $\langle qu\bar{o}m\check{o}(do)\rangle$. Cf. quezacom below. There is a diminutive calacomet, which helped to maintain the m of calacom.
 - (10) Cals que quals que, cal que qual que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
 - (11) Cant quant can quan < quantum quanti, 'how much', 'how many'. Cant, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
 - (12) Casciis chasciis, 'everyone', 'every', appears to be a fusion of cada üs and *cescüs < *cisqu' ūnus = quisque ūnus = ūnus quisque. Inflection: cascüs, cascü(n); cascüna.
 - (13) Ent en n ne < inde, 'some': cf. § 123.
 - (14) Maint mant man manh < Celtic *manti, 'many', 'many a', 'many a one'. Obj. pl. in -s, f. sg. in -a, f. pl. in -as.
 - (15) Molt mout mot mul mon < multum, 'much'. For mot, mul, mon, see § 74, (2) and § 74, 1. Molt, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
 - (16) Negüs < něc ūnus, 'no one'. Inflection: negüs, negü(n); negüna. Beside negün we find degün, apparently through dissimilation.
 - (17) Nüls < nūllus, 'no', 'none'. Inflection: nüls, nül, nül nülh, nüls; nüla, nülas. From nülh < nūllī comes a set of forms with lh: see § 67, (2). Hence, by metathesis suggested by the analogy of negün, lhün. A fusion of nülh and lhün results in lünh, whence a set of forms with nh.
 - (18) **0m** < hŏmo, 'one'.

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- (19) Pauc < paucum, pauci, 'little', 'few'. There is also a regular adjective, paucs, 'small'.
 - (20) Que que, 'whatever', is a Provençal compound.
- (21) Quecs < quisquis (§ 78, 2), 'everyone'. From quecs were formed an objective quec and a feminine quega (cf. amics amic amiga).
- (22) Quesacom (diminutive quesacomet), 'something', 'a little', is formed like calacom above, the first element in this case being either ques < quid or que s = que es.
 - (23) Qui que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
 - (24) Res re, 'anything', 'something.
 - (25) Tals < talis, 'such', inflected like cals (§ 134).
 - (26) Tamanh < tam magnum, 'so great'; f. tamanha.
- (27) Tant tan ta < tantum, tanti, 'so much', 'so many'. Tant, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
- (28) Totz $< t\bar{o}ttus = t\bar{o}tus$ (Gram., I, § 547), 'all', had a regular inflection: totz, tot, tot, totz; tota, totas. In the masculine nominative plural, however, we find oftener the forms tüch tüich tüit tüt tüti, which point to a Latin $*t\bar{u}ct\bar{i}$ (cf. Italian tutti); for this no satisfactory explanation has been discovered (see Nigra, Rom., XXXI, 525). Hence we occasionally have in the singular tütz, tüt, and in the objective plural tügz tütz; the last form occurs also as a nominative plural. Tot is frequently used as a neuter pronoun and as an adverb.
- as an adverb.

 (29) Üs, 'some'; from ūnus, used as an indefinite adjective or pronoun, we have the plural forms: ü(n), ü(n)s; ünas.

2. CONJUGATION.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

- 137. (1) In Vulgar Latin there were some shifts, the verbs of the second and third conjugations being particularly unstable: caděre, capěre, sapěre, for instance, often passed into the second, while movere, ridere frequently followed the third, and mori, sequi usually went into the fourth. Posse, velle, with the new infinitives *potere, *volere, were made to conform with more or less regularity to the second conjugation type. Beside do, dant, sto, stant, there came into use the forms * dao, *daunt, *stao, *staunt. Beside facere there doubtless existed a verb * fare,1 strongly influenced by dare and stare; the first suggestion of shortening probably came from the monosyllabic imperative singular fac (or fa^2), which must have led to a plural *fate beside facite. Habere and vadere2 also came under the influence of dare and stare; the former adopted, beside habeo, habes, habet, habent, the forms *ho, *has, *hat, *hant or *haunt. Vaděre generally lost its past tenses, which were replaced by ire and, in southern Gaul, by annare.8
- (2) In Provençal the first conjugation was well preserved, and the fourth lost but little. The second and the third lost many verbs (especially learned words) to the fourth: delir, emplir, envazir, espandir, fugir, iauzir, merir, regir, relinquir, reluzir, vertir; cozer cozir consuere, devire devezir dividere, dire dir dicere, leire legir (also lire lir) legere, querre querir cquærère, segre seguir sequi, tener tenir tenir tenir more.

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¹ See G. Rydberg, Le développement de facere dans les langues romanes, 1893.

²See A. Zimmermann in Zs., XXV, 735.

³ See C. C. Rice in Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, XIX, 217.

⁴ Cf. §138.

⁵ Cf. §72, Sw.

⁶ According to Raimon Vidal, a 13th century grammarian, tenir is French.

over, the second and third conjugations, which in Provençal differed practically only in the infinitive, were much confused: caber, cazer, mordre, rire, saber; corre accorrer, mentaver mentaure < mente habēre, mover moure, querre querer, redebre rezemer < redimēre. Uc Faidit, a 13th century grammarian, enumerates about 500 verbs in -ar, about 100 in -er and -re, and a little over 100 in -ir.

- 138. The inchoative ending -scere lost its original sense. The $-\bar{i}sc$ type, for verbs of the fourth conjugation, was very widely extended, the -isc- becoming a part of the regular present stem of the fourth conjugation, and disappearing from the infinitive: $fin\bar{i}re$, * $fin\bar{i}sco$ > finir, finisc. An obscure substitute for the Latin - $\bar{e}sc$ type produced an ending -eissir -ezir -zir ($dispigr\bar{e}sc\bar{e}re$ = despereissir, $evan\bar{e}sc\bar{e}re$ = envanezir¹), which was used in forming some new verbs: enfolezir² < fol, envelhezir < velh, envelzir < vil, esclarzir < clar, escürzir < escür oscür, espaorzir < paor.⁸ The - $\bar{a}sc$ and - $\bar{o}sc$ types appear in old verbs: $ir\bar{a}sc\bar{e}re$ > iraisser, $co(g)n\bar{o}sc\bar{e}re$ > conoisser.⁴
- 139. New verbs were formed, in late Vulgar Latin and in Provençal, only in the first and fourth conjugations. The commonest suffixes were $-\bar{a}re$, $-i\bar{a}re$, $-ic\bar{a}re$, $-idi\bar{a}re$ ($<-i\zeta_{uv}$: § 57, Z), $-\bar{i}re$: *oblitāre> oblidar, *altiāre> aussar, *carricāre> cargar, *werridiāre> guerreiar, *abbellīre> abelir. Germanic verbs generally went into the first conjugation, except those in -jan, most of which entered the fourth: roubôn> raubar (also raubir), witan> guidar; furbjan> forbir.

* See K. Sittl in Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, I, 465.

¹ Esvanuir seems to come from the perfect, evanui.

² Enfolhetir shows the influence of follet.

³ For two different explanations of this ending, see A. Thomas, Essais de philologie française, 25, 281; E. Herzog, in Bausteine zur romanischen Philologie, 481.

FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES IN INFLECTION.

- 140. The Latin perfect passive took the sense of a present; amātus est, for instance, under the influence of such phrases as carus est, came to mean 'he is loved'. This led to the establishment of an entire passive inflection made up of the perfect participle and the parts of the verb ĕsse; and the old passive forms were gradually abandoned, leaving no trace (save the perfect participle and possibly the gerundive) in the Romance languages. So the passive is constructed in Provençal as in French: es amatz, era amatz, fo amatz, será amatz, etc.; the participle regularly agrees with the subject in gender and number. Latin deponent verbs became active: mŏri> morir, sĕqui> seguir.
- 141. (1) Such phrases as id habeo factum shifted their meaning from 'I have it done', etc., to 'I have done it', etc. The Latin perfect came to be restricted to its aorist sense, and the perfect was expressed by compounds of habere with the perfect participle. In the Romance languages all compound tenses were eventually formed in this way: ai cantat, avia cantat, aurai cantat, etc. In Provençal the auxiliary is sometimes esser, instead of aver, if the main verb is reflexive, passive, or neuter; esser is particularly common with neuter verbs of motion: soi vengütz. A participle used with aver may agree in gender and number with the direct object, if there is one: ai cantat or cantada la canso.
- (2) The Latin perfect indicative continued to be used as an aorist, and is the source of the preterit in Provençal, as in

¹ For ai estat we sometimes find soi aguts. The confusion arises perhaps from the use of both es and a in the sense of 'there is': hence es estat = a agut; and by a mixture of the two, es agut. Cf. L. Gauchat, Sons avuto, in Scritti vari di filologia (dedicated to E. Monaci), 1901, p. 61.

the other Romance languages: $v\bar{i}d\bar{i} > vi$, 'I saw'. The pluperfect indicative survived in some regions; in Provençal it is the usual used with the sense of a conditional: $f\bar{u}\bar{c}rat > \text{fora}$, 'he would be'. The future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive did not remain in Provençal: $amav\bar{c}ro = \text{aurai amat}$, $amav\bar{c}rim = \text{aia amat}$. The pluperfect subjunctive assumed the functions of the imperfect, which disappeared from nearly every part of the Romance territory: $aud\bar{i}ssem$ (for $aud\bar{i}rem$) > auzis. The perfect infinitive left no trace: $aud\bar{i}sse = \text{aver}$ auzit. For possible traces of the mathematical amathematical amathematical

- 142. The Latin future, which was not uniform in the four conjugations, and, in the third and fourth, was liable to confusion with the present subjunctive, was gradually replaced by various periphrastic constructions: instead of faciam people said factūrus sum, dēbeo facēre, vŏlo facēre, habeo (ad) facēre, etc. The construction that prevailed in the greater part of the Empire was facēre habeo, a combination of the infinitive with the present indicative of habēre. The verb ĕsse was the only one that ultimately retained the old future beside the new: Pr. er, ers, er, beside serái serás será; in the plural, only serem, seretz, serán. The new composite future was occasionally used by Tertullian, St. Jerome, and St. Augustine, and became common in Italy by the 6th century.
- (2) As an imperfect of the future, there was evolved a combination of the infinitive and the imperfect or perfect indicative. To correspond to dicit quod venire habet, was constructed dixit quod venire habebat (or habuit); to match si possum, venire habeo, was made si potuissem, venire habebam (or habui). In Gaul, as in most of the Empire, only the imperfect of habere was used for this purpose. Traces of such

¹Cf. P. Thielmann, Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, II, 48 and 157.

a construction are found as early as the 3d century. This form is generally called the *conditional*, and it existed in Provençal side by side with the conditional described in §141, (2): sería, serías, sería, etc., beside fora, foras, fora, etc. The Romance languages developed also a perfect conditional: auría agüt = 'I should have had'.

- 143. (1) The present participle remained in use as an adjective: filias placentes > filhas plazens; cf. § 101, (3). In its verbal function it was replaced by the ablative of the gerund: věnit accūrrens > věnit accūrrendo > ven acorren. In most Provençal dialects, however, the present participle and the gerund coincided in form (amantem and amando both > amán), the gerund being distinguished from the participle only by its lack of inflection: see § 76, (2).
- (2) The gerund retained only the ablative case, the use of which was considerably extended: see above. In its other cases it was replaced by the infinitive: artem dīcendī > artem dīcēre > art de dire. The supine, too, was replaced by the infinitive: vīsum vēnit nōs > vēnit nōs vidēre > ven nos (a) vezer.

INFINITIVE, PRESENT PARTICIPLE, AND GERUND.

- 144. The infinitive endings $-\bar{a}re$, $-\bar{e}re$, $-\bar{i}re$ regularly became -ar, -er, -ir; $-\bar{e}re$ became -re or -er: see § 48, (1) and § 52, (1). Ex.: $am\bar{a}re > am\acute{a}r$, $vid\bar{e}re > vezer$, $aud\bar{i}re > auzir$; $töll\breve{e}re > tolre$, $nasc\breve{e}re > n\acute{a}isser$, $d\bar{i}cere > dire$ dízer. For shifts of conjugation, see § 137.
- 1. The fourth conjugation verbs enantir, gausir, grazir, murir, servir sometimes took a final e by the analogy of devire (< dividere), dire, rire. On the other hand, dire occasionally lost its -e by the analogy of the fourth conjugation. Lire for leire (< leggere) is probably French, and lir is to be explained like dir.



- 2. Far beside faire doubtless comes from *fare = facere: see § 137, (1). Trar beside traire (<*tragere) follows far.
- 3. Escriure (< scrībēre) sometimes became escrire through the analogy of dire.
- 4. Some verbs that passed from the second to the third conjugation preserved the old infinitive as a noun: debēre > deure dever, placēre > plaire plasēr.
- 145. The endings -antem -ando, -ĕntem -ĕndo regularly became -an or -ant, -en or -ent: § 76, (2). See § 143, (1). The endings -iĕntem -iĕndo lost their i in Vulgar Latin (§ 40, 1), and were thus reduced to -entem -endo. Ex.: amantem amando > amán (or amánt), vidĕntem vidĕndo > vezén (or vezént), credĕntem credĕndo > crezén (or crezént); sapiĕntem sapiĕndo > *sapĕntem *sapĕndo > sabén (or sabént), partiĕntem partiĕndo > *partentem *partiendo > partén (or partént). Fourth conjugation verbs which adopted the inchoative -sc-(§ 138), generally introduced it into the present participle and the gerund: florir, florissen. Cf. § 155. For the declension of the present participle, see § 101, (3).

PAST PARTICIPLE.

- 146. The Provençal past participle comes from the Latin perfect participle. It is to be noted that verbs which originally had no perfect participle were obliged to create one in order to form their compound tenses: see § 141, (1). Past participles in Provençal, when inflected, were declined like bel: §§ 102; 102, 1; 103, (1). See § 141, (1).
- 147. In the first and fourth conjugations the endings were $-\bar{a}tum$ and $-\bar{\imath}tum$, which regularly became -at and -it: cantātum > cantát, finītum > fenít. The first conjugation verbs which had a form in $-\bar{\imath}tum$ discarded it for $-\bar{a}tum$: crepāre crepītum = crebár crebát. On the other hand, aperīre and

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operire preserved their participle in -ĕrtum: cubrir (<cooperire), cubert (also cubrít); ubrír (<aperire + cooperire), ubert. By the analogy of these, sufrir (<suffĕrre) and ufrir (<offĕrre) have sufert (also sufrít), ufert. Tener tenir keeps its Provençal second conjugation ending, tengüt (see § 148); and venir, following the analogy of tenir, has vengüt.

- 148. (1) Most Latin verbs of the second and third conjugations had no accented ending, but a few had an ending $-\bar{u}tum$, which corresponded very well to the $-\bar{a}tum$ and $-\bar{i}tum$ of the first and fourth: arguere, argutum; consuere, consutum; sequi, secutum; solvere, solutum; volvere, volutum. This ending was considerably extended in Vulgar Latin, especially to verbs having a perfect in $-\bar{u}\bar{i}$: habere, habu, habitum *habutum. In Provençal it spread still further: cazer, cazec, cazegüt. Inasmuch as it was closely associated with the perfect, it came to be attached, more and more frequently, to the stem of that tense.
- (2) Of the Provençal verbs of the second and third conjugations, about half adopted the ending -üt. In some the -üt is added to the stem of the infinitive: crezüt, defendüt, escondüt, molüt, perdüt, resemüt, respondüt, rompüt, vendüt, vezüt veüt. Most of the verbs, however, attach the -üt to the stem of the preterit; nasc, nascüt; pasc, pascüt; tems, temsüt; tesc, tescüt; venc, vencüt (from venser); visc, viscüt. A few have both forms: agüt avüt; cazegüt cazüt; vengüt venüt. It is to be noted, in the case of verbs that add -üt to the preterit, that if the third person singular of the preterit ends in a voiceless consonant preceded by a vowel or l or n, that consonant is voiced in the participle: ac, agüt; bec, begüt; cazec, cazegüt; conoc, conogüt; crec, cregüt; dec, degüt; elec, elegüt; moc, mogüt; noc, nogüt; plac, plagüt; ploc, plogüt; poc, pogüt; remas, remazüt; saup, saubüt; sec, següt; tenc, ten-



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güt; tolc, tolgüt; valc, valgüt; venc, vengüt (from venir); volc, volgüt. Exceptions are ceupüt, saupüt (beside saubüt), and vencüt (from venser): for ceupüt, saupüt, cf. § 65, P, 3; in vencüt the c was perhaps kept to distinguish the word from vengüt (venir).

- (3) The other half of the second and third conjugation verbs generally preserved the old participle with no accented ending: ars, ceing, claus, dich, düit, estreit, fach, ioinch, mes, onh, post, pres, trach, etc. Some of these have also forms in -üt: defes defendüt, elig esleit elegüt, escos escondüt, mout molüt, nat nascüt, remas remazüt, rot rompüt, vis vezüt. few verbs made up new forms without a stressed ending: conquerre, conques conquis; redemer rezemer, redems (rezemüt); sorger, sors; tolre, tolt tout; vezer, vist (vis vezüt veüt); volvre, vout. Mittere probably had beside missum a form * mīsum (cf. mīsī); hence metre, mes mis. By the analogy of this, prendre has beside pres a form pris. Estre borrowed estát from estar < stare. Escriut, from escriure, is probably influenced by the infinitive; escrich follows dich. So, probably, does elig = esleit, from elegir eslire eslir.
- 1. For soi agutz (= ai estat), which is found not only in some Provençal dialects, but also in southeastern France, French Switzerland, and parts of northern Italy, see § 141, (1), footnote 1.

FUTURE AND NEW CONDITIONAL.

149. For the formation of these parts, see § 142, (1), (2). Ex.: amarái, creisserái, florirái. Verbs of the second conjugation regularly, and verbs of the fourth very often, syncopate the e or i of the infinitive: remanrái, volrás; partrái, venría. Third conjugation infinitives with final e drop this e before the ending; those in—er keep the e: vendre, vendrái; náisser, naisserái. First conjugation infinitives regularly keep the a

- (§ 45), but in a few texts (especially the *Girart* and the *Rasos de trobar*) the a is changed to e: cantarái, sonaría, trobarem; blasmerán, comterá.
- 1. Esser keeps the old future forms er, ers, er, beside serdi, serds, serd (serém, serétz, serán).
- 150. For the phonetic changes exemplified in auría, deurái, mourá; plairía; cairá, veirái; valdrái; remandrém, tendría; poiría, see § 70, βr, C'r, Dr, Lr, Nr, Tr. Anar (<annāre) has beside anarái a form irái from ir (<īre). Esser drops its first syllable (serái), perhaps through elision (tu 'sserás, etc.), perhaps in accordance with the general principle stated in § 19. Faire far always makes its future and conditional from the latter form (farái). Saber has beside sabrái a form saubrái, due no doubt to the combined influence of aurái and the preterit saup < sapuit. Vezer, following the analogy of beurái, deurái, viurái, has veurái beside the regular veirái.
- 151. The composite nature of the future and conditional was still sufficiently felt, in the literary period, to admit of the separation of the component parts: amar vos ái, dar n'etz, donar lo t'ái, tornar nos em, tornar s'en ía.

FUTURE ENDINGS.

152. For the 1st pers. sg., the Provençal verb used the form *ayo> ai (§ 73, βy); for the 2d and 3d pers. sg. and the 3d pers. pl., the forms *has> as, *hat> a (§ 82, T), *hant*haunt> an aun (§ 83, Nt): see § 137, (1). In the 1st and 2d pers. pl., $hab\bar{e}mu'$ (§ 82, S, 2), $hab\bar{e}tis$ naturally gave avem, avetz (§ 64); but inasmuch as the other four terminations were monosyllabic, the av— was dropped when avem, avetz came to be understood merely as future endings. The future is, therefore, inflected as follows:—

cantar-ái cantar-em cantar-ás cantar-etz, -es, -et cantar-á cantar-án, -ánt, -áun, -áu

1. In Gascony and Languedoc we find -ei for -ai: see §\$23, 2; 162, (4). In Gascon and in the modern dialects of some other regions -am is used for em. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -em becomes -en: cf. § 65, M, 1; also § 167, 2.

CONDITIONAL ENDINGS.

153. Habēbam > aβeβa > (probably through dissimilation: § 87, β) aβea > avía (§ 26); so avías, avía, aviám, aviátz, avían. But inasmuch as the conditional was formed in imitation of the future, and none of the future forms retained the av-, the conditional endings were reduced to -ía, -ías, -ía, -iám, -iátz, -ían. Some dialects, which substituted -on for -an, introduced -íon into the conditional: § 169. The conditional is, therefore, inflected as follows:—

cantar-ía cantar-iám
cantar-ías cantar-iátz, -iás, -iát
cantar-ía cantar-ían, -íon, -ío

1. In verse these endings are sometimes counted as monosyllabic: poiriâ. Guiraut Riquier uses --íatz for --iátz. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, --iám becomes --ián: cf. § 65, M, 1; also § 167, 2.

PRESENT.

- 154. The personal endings will be discussed separately in §§ 164-169.
- 155. The Provençal present indicative and subjunctive come, in the main, directly from the corresponding parts of the Latin verb:—

amo > am amāmu' > amám faciam > fassa faciāmu' > fassám amas > amas amātis > amátz facias > fassas faciātis > fassátz amat > ama amant > áman faciat > fassa faciant > fássan



In the 4th conjugation, however, most verbs have adopted the originally inchoative -sc- (§ 138) and incorporated it into the inflection of the present, except in the 1st and 2d pers. pl. of the indicative:—

```
      florisco
      florisco
      florēmu'
      florēm¹

      florīscis
      floris florisses
      florētis
      florētis

      florīscit
      floriscunt
      floriscon

      florīscam
      florisca
      floriscāmu'
      floriscāmu'

      florīscas
      floriscātis
      floriscātis
      floriscātis

      florīscat
      florīscant
      florīscant
      florīscant
```

We occasionally find such forms as florissem, florissetz, and florám, florátz.

- 1. The s coming from sc' was of course originally palatal; it is sometimes written sh. The sc of the 1st pers. sg., the 3d pers. pl., and the whole pres. subjunctive was replaced, in some dialects, by s or sh: floris florish, florisson florishon, florissa florisha.
- 156. Of the Latin imperative forms, only the present active, 2d pers. sg. and pl., remained in use. The Provençal verb kept the sg., but substituted for the pl. the 2d pers. pl. of the present indicative:—

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ama > ama têne > ten crēde > cre
amāte amātis > amātz tenēte tenētis > tenetz crēdītis 2 > crezetz
```

partī > part fīnīsce > finis partīte partītis > partetz² finīte finītis > finetz²

In negative commands the present subjunctive is generally used instead of the plural imperative, and sometimes the infinitive is employed instead of sg. or pl. The verbs auzir, aver, dire, esser, saber, vezer, voler regularly took their imperative forms from the present subjunctive: auias, digatz, veiatz, etc.

¹ For the accented vowels in these forms, see §§ 167, 168.

³ See § 168.

- I Fait < facite (beside faitz) seems to come directly from the Latin form.
- 2. Before vos the pl. drops final -ts (or -t?): departe vos, vene vos. Ve vos becomes veus; a fusion of ve vos and ec < eccum results in vecvos.

DOUBLE STEMS.

- 157. Differences in accentuation and in the environment of vowels or consonants regularly developed different stems in different parts of some verbs. For instance, *adjūtāre*> aidar (§ 45), while *adjūtat*> aiüda.
- 158. Sometimes, as above, an intertonic vowel disappeared: mándūcārė > maniar, mandūco > * mandūc manūc; * parabolāre * páraulāre > parlar, * parabŏlat * paraulat > paraula. In such cases the shortened stem usually prevailed: mania, parla. But in adjutare the longer one was preferred: aiūdar.
- 159. (1) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may be unstressed, and therefore remain unbroken, in another part: probāre > proar, probat > prueva, **sequīre > seguir, **sequīre > seguire > s
- (2) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may, with different environment, remain unbroken even in another part in which it is stressed: *volēre> voler, *vŏleo> vuelh, *vŏlet> vol. If the breaking occurs in the 1st pers. sg., the phonetic development is regularly undisturbed; if it occurs in the 2d and 3d pers. sg., it is generally carried into the other forms in which the vowel is stressed: cŏlligit> cuelh, hence cuelh = colligo; čxit> ieis, hence iesc, iescon, iesca.
 - 160. A consonant may be followed by e or i, and so pala-

^{*} See § 37.

⁴ See § 30.

talized, in one part of the verb, and not in another: *cadeo> chai, *cadēmu'> chazem; dēbeo> dech dei (§ 73, \(\beta \) y), dēbet> deu; faciat > fassa, facēre> faire; fŭgio> füi, fugēre> fugir; faceam> iassa, facēre> iazer¹; placeāmu'> plassam, placēmu'> plazem; sapiam> sapcha, sapit> sap; těneo> tenh, těnet> ten; valeo> valh, vales> vals; věniat> venha, venīre> venir; videam> veia, vidētis> vezetz; *vŏleo> vuelh, *vŏlet> vol. Verbs in -eo generally keep this distinction; but we find mova, somóna, tema = mŏveam, submŏneam, timeam. Most verbs in -io, on the other hand, dropped the i in Vulgar Latin: partio *parto> part, partiunt *partunt> parton, partiam *partam> parta; sen, senton, senta; sierf, siervon, sierva; cetc. A few verbs show forms both with and without the e or i: audio> auch (audiam> auia), *audo> au; crēdo> cre, *crēdo> crei²; video> vei², *vido> ve.

161. Verbs in -ng- naturally developed a palatal consonant before e or i (§ 73, Ng'), but not before other vowels: $\vec{cingere} > \text{cenher}$, $\vec{cingo} > \text{cenc}$, $\vec{cingit} > \text{cenh}$, $\vec{cingam} > \text{cenga}$; so fenher, onher, planher, ponher, etc. The palatal was carried by analogy into the parts that were originally without it: hence the double forms cenc cenh, cengon cenhon, cenga cenha, etc. These double forms led tener, venir to adopt tenc, venc, tenga, venga, beside the regular tenh, venh, tenha, venha. Such forms as these, supported by derc $< de - \bar{e}rigo$, dic $< d\bar{i}co$, prec < preco, sec < *sequo, trac < *trago, etc., afforded a starting-point for an ending -c, adopted by some other verbs in the 1st pers. sg. of the present indicative: $p\bar{e}rdo < pert$ perc, $pr(eh)\bar{e}ndo > pren$ prenc, remaneo > remanh remanc, etc.

¹ Also, by analogy, iassér.

Raimon Vidal says that *crei*, vei are the proper forms for the 1st pers. sg. of the pres. indicative.

PECULIAR FORMS.

- 162. The following verbs have individual peculiarities that call for special mention:—
- (1) Anar (<annāre), 'to go', takes most of its present from vadēre: indicative, vau vauc (analogy of estau estauc), vas, va vai (analogy of fai), anám, anáts, van vaun (analogy of estan estaun); subjunctive, an or vasa (<vadam) vaia (analogy of vai and of traia), vaga (analogy of traga), etc.; imperative, vai (analogy of fai), anáts.
- (2) Aucire (< occīdēre: § 43) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. auci (< occīdēt) and aucis (analogy of aucizém, aucizétz). Cf. ausir, caire, rire, traire, vezér. These forms were doubtless helped by the analogy of ditz (< dīcit), dütz, fatz, iatz, letz (< līcet), platz, tatz.
- (3) Auzir (< audīre) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. au (< audīt) and aus (analogy of auzēm, auzētz). Cf. aucīre, caire, rire, traire, vezēr. See also § 160.
- (4) Aver (< habēre) has in the pres. indicative: ai (< habeo: § 73, βy), as, a, avēm, avēts (see §§ 167, 168), an aun; see § 137, (1). There is no trace of *ho. Instead of ai, the dialects of Aude, Tarn, Tarn et Garonne, and Haute-Garonne have ei (cf. Gram., II, p. 304), which probably developed first in the future (§ 152, I) through the analogy of the preterit ending -ei which took the place of -ai: amāvi *amai > *amai amei (§ 175), then amarai > amarei, then ai > ei. The pres. subjunctive is aia (< habeam: § 73, βy). For the imperative, see § 156.
- (5) Caire cazér (< cadère * cadère) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. ca (< cadèt) cai (analogy of brai < * bragit, fai, trai < * tragit, vai) cas (analogy of cazém, cazétz: cf. aucire, auzir, rire, traire, vezér).
- (6) Condisser (< cognoscere) has in the pres. indicative 1st sg. conosc (< cognosco) and condis (analogy of 2d and 3d sg., condisses, condis).
- (7) Creire (< crēděre): pres. subjunctive creza (< crēdam) and crega (analogy of diga, sega, traga). See also § 160.
- (8) Créisser (< crēscère): pres. subjunctive cresca (< crēscam) and crega (analogy of diga, sega, traga, and of the imperfect subjunctive cregués).
 - (9) Dar (< dare): dau (< *dao), daun (< *daunt); see § 137, (1).
- (10) Destruive (<* destrugëre = destruëre): analogy of agëre, tëgëre, etc. Cf. traire. * Destrugit > destrui.

- (11) Dever (< debēre) has in the pres. indicative 1st sg., beside dech dei (§ 160), dec (analogy of dic, prec, sec, trac, and perhaps of the preterit dec).
- (12) Dire $(\langle d\bar{\imath}c\bar{e}re\rangle)$: dic $(\langle d\bar{\imath}co\rangle)$ diu (cf. § 51, 3; § 65, G, 1); ditz $(\langle d\bar{\imath}cil\rangle)$ di (analogy of fai, trai, and of imperative $di\langle d\bar{\imath}c\rangle$; dizon (analogy of ditz, dizem, dizetz); diga dia (both $\langle d\bar{\imath}cam\rangle$: § 65, G). For the imperative, see § 156.
 - (13) Düire ($< d\bar{u}c\bar{e}re$): $d\bar{u}tz$ ($< d\bar{u}cit$) $d\bar{u}i$ (analogy of $destr\bar{u}i$, trai).
- (14) Eissir (< exīre): iesc, iescon, iesca, analogy of conosc, florisc, etc.; for vowel, see § 159, (2).
- (15) Ésser estre (<**\textit{e}\text
- (16) Estar (< stare). Pres. indicative: estáu (< *stao) estáuc (§ 161); estás (< stas); está (< stat) estái (analogy of fai, trai); estám (< stamu'); estátz (< statis) estáitz (after faitz); están (< stant) estáun (< *staunt); see § 137, (1). Pres. subjunctive: estía, etc., estéia, etc., patterned on sia, seia; also estéi, perhaps a cross between esteia and *esté < stem. Imperative: está, estáitz.

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- (17) Faire far (< facëre *fare): § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: fats (< facio) fau (analogy of dau, estau) fac fauc (§ 161); fas (< *fas); fats (< facit) fa (< *fat) fai (influence of faire, faim, faitz, and of trai); faim (< facimu': § 167, 1) fam (< *famu') fazém (see fazétz); faitz (< facitis) fatz (< *fatis) fazétz (analogy of regular verbs, crezétz, etc.); fan (< *fant) faun (analogy of daun, estaun). Pres. subjunctive: faça fassa, etc. (< faciam, etc.). Imperative: fai (< fac); fatz faitz (borrowed from indicative) fait (< facité).
 - (18) Iazér (< jacère), also iassér (influence of ias < iatz < jacet, and of

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- iassa?): iatz (< jacet) iai (analogy of fai, trai); iassa (< jaceam) iaia (analogy of traia, vaia).
- (19) Movér moure (< movēre *movēre): mova (< *movam = moveam) moga (analogy of traga). Also of move.
- (20) Partir (<partire): part (<*parto=partio) parc (§ 161); so parta parga.
 - (21) Perdre (<perdere): pert perc, perda perga; see § 161.
- (22) Plazér plaire (<placere *placère): platz (<placet) plai (analogy of fai, trai); plassa (<placeam) plaia (analogy of traia, vaia).
- (23) Podér (<*potère = pösse): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: posc (<pòssum influenced by cognōsco) puosc puesc (analogy of puoc puec <p>pòtui), puecs (?<*pots<*pòtsum + puesc), pois (<*pòtseo); potz (<pòtes); pot (<*pôtet = pòtest); podém (<*potèmu'); podétz (<*potètis); pòden (<*potent) pòdon, pon (analogy of potz, pot, and son < sunt). Pres. subjunctive: posca puosca puesca (like posc puosc puesc), etc.; poissa (<*pòsseam), etc.
- (24) Prendre (prëndëre = prehëndëre) penre (see § 71, end): pren (prëndo) prenh (analogy of tenh, venh) prenc (§ 161); so prenda prenha prenga.
- (25) Rire (<*rīdēre): ri (<rīdet) ritz (analogy of rizém, rizétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, traire, vezér); ria (<rīdeam?).
- (26) Sabér (<*sapēre): see § 137, 1. Pres. indicative: sai sei (analogy of ai ei from avér); saps; sap; sabém (<*sapēmu'); sabétz (<*sapētis); sáben (<*sapent) sábon. Pres. subjunctive: sapcha (< sapiam). Imperative from subjunctive.
- (27) Tazér taire (< tacère * tacère): tatz (< tacet) tai (analogy of taire and of fai, trai).
 - (28) Tenér (< tenère): tenh (< teneo) tene (§ 161); so tenha tenga.
- (29) Traire (<*tragëre, perhaps also *tracëre, = trahëre): trac (<*trageo or *traco) trai (§ 63, 6)¹; trai (<*tragit) tra (analogy of da, esta, fa, va) tratz (<*tracit?: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, vezër); trázon (analogy of tratz); traga traia (both <*tragam).
- (30) Vezér ($\langle videre \rangle$: vei ($\langle video \rangle$ vec (§ 161); ve ($\langle videt \rangle$ ves (analogy of vezém, vezétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, traire). Imperative from subjunctive.

According to Raimon Vidal, trac is the only correct form.

- (31) Volér (<*volère = vělle): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: vuelh (<*volèo); vols (<*volès); vol (<*volèn'); volém (<*volèmu')¹; voléts (<*volètis); vólon (<*volènt). Pres. subjunctive: vuelha (<*volèan), vuelhas, vuelha, vulham, vulhats, vuelhan. Imperative from subjunctive.
- 163. In verse the present subjunctive ending -ia sometimes counts as one syllable: siatz. Cf. § 153, 1.

PERSONAL ENDINGS².

164. (1) In the first person singular final -o and -em regularly disappeared: amo > am, amem > am. When, however, the -o or -em was preceded by a consonant group requiring a supporting vowel (§ 52), the ending was regularly retained as -e: dubito > dopte, suffero > suffre, tremulem > tremble.

Through the analogy of ai, crei, dei, soi, vei, and the 1st pers. sg. of the preterit, this —e was in the indicative generally changed at an early date to —i: *cŏpĕro > cobre cobri, *opĕro > obre obri; so impleo *implo > ompli. This —i (occasionally —e) was then taken as a distinctive ending of the 1st pers. sg., and was added to many verbs that needed no supporting vowel: auzir, au auze; azorar, azor azori; cantar, can canti; corre, cor corri; metre, met meti; prezar, pretz prezi; remirar, remir remire remiri; respondre, respon respondi; sentir, sen senti; vendre, ven vendi.

In the subjunctive, when a final vowel was required, —e was usually kept; it was also extended to some verbs that did not need it: acabe, done, mire, plore. Very rarely an unnecessary—i was added instead of—e: laissar, lais laissi.

(2) The ending -am regularly gave -a: audiam > auia.

¹ Volemus occurs repeatedly in 7th century Latin.

² Cf. O. Schmidt, Ueber die Endungen des Præsens im Altprovenzalischen, 1887.

165. In the second person singular final -as regularly remained, and -ēs and is became -s (or, when a supporting vowel was required, -es): amas > amas; valēs > vals, sapis > saps, partīs > partz; dūbitēs > doptes. Cf. § 82, S. Sometimes, especially in late texts, -s is expanded into -es: canz cantes, partz partes, saps sabes, vals vales; so floris florisses, etc.

Final -a remained, and $-\bar{e}$ and $-\bar{i}$ fell: ama > ama, $t\bar{e}ne >$ ten, $cr\bar{e}de >$ cre, $part\bar{i} >$ part.

166. In the third person singular final -at became -a, -ĕt and -ĕt fell (but remained as -e when a supporting vowel was needed): amat>ama, amet>am, těnet> ten te, věnit> ven ve; trěmůlet> tremble. Cf. § 82, T.

167. In the first person plural the final -s disappeared early, s being perhaps regarded as a distinctively second person ending. The rare form esmes $= s \tilde{u} m u s$ is the only one that retains the s: cf. § 162, (15).

Then $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{e}mu'$ gave regularly -am, -em: $cant\bar{a}mus$ cantám, $hab\bar{e}mus$ avem. Likewise $-\bar{i}mu'$, through the analogy of $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{e}mu'$, came to take the accent on its penult, and then regularly developed into -em: $cr\bar{e}d\bar{i}mus * cred\bar{i}mu'$ crezem. This -em of the second and third conjugations passed into the fourth, and entirely displaced the -im that would have been the regular representative of $-\bar{i}mu'$: $part\bar{i}mus$ * partím partem.

- In faim < facimu' the old accentuation apparently survives: cf. § 52,
 I.
- 2. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -m apparently becomes -n: devén, havén, volén; so aurián, trobarén, segrián (cf. § 152, 1; § 153, 1). Cf. § 65, M, 1.

 $^{^1}$ The loss of -s is not confined to the Provençal territory: it occurs also in western France, Catalonia, and the Engadine.

168. In the second person plural —ātis regularly gave —atz: amātis > amatz, audiātis > auiatz. The regular form from —ētis is —etz, which we find kept in the future (veiretz) and in the present subjunctive (cantetz); in the present indicative it was replaced by —etz, probably through the analogy of etz < ēstis: habētis > avetz avetz, * potētis > podetz podetz, so sezetz, valetz, etc.; the rare avetz and podetz are the only forms that preserve e. The ending —itis, taking the accent on its penult (cf. § 167), became *—etz, then —etz: crēditis > crezetz. This —etz also displaced the —itz that would have been regular in the fourth conjugation: partītis > partetz.

The final -tz was reduced, in some of the principal dialects, to -s (§ 64): cantás, sezes, partes. In other dialects it was replaced very early by -t (§ 64): auiát, avet, passát, podet; so partiret, etc.

- I. In faitz < facitis the old accentuation apparently survives.
- 169. In the third person plural -ant, -ent, -unt gave respectively -an -ant, -en, -on -o (§ 83, Nt): amant> ámant ámant, audiant> áuian áuiant; valent> válen, ament> ámen; vēndunt> vendon vendo. In Languedoc -an was replaced by -on or -o in the 13th century; in other regions, later: ámon, chanto ls, coménso l. The Boeci has -en for -an: amen, monten. In Gascony and some of the Limousin territory -en partially displaced -on (floríssen, párten, venden), elsewhere -on or -o displaced -en (válon).

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

170. In the first conjugation -abam regularly gave -ava. In the second, through the analogy of $a\beta \ell a < hab\bar{e}bam$ (§ 153), $-\bar{e}bam$ came to be replaced, in southern Gaul, by $-\ell a$, which regularly changed to $-\ell a$ (§ 26). In the third, $-i\bar{e}bam$ regu-

larly became $-\bar{e}bam$ (§ 40, 1); and this and original $-\bar{e}bam$ were replaced by the $-\ell a > -\ell a$ of the second conjugation. In the fourth, $-\bar{\iota}bam$, which had in the accented syllable the characteristic vowel of the conjugation, crowded out $-i\bar{e}bam$; $-\bar{\iota}bam$ then lost its β through the analogy of the second and third conjugations. We have, then, in Provençal, only two sets of endings: $-\acute{a}va$, etc., in the first conjugation; $-\acute{\epsilon}a$, etc., in the second, third, and fourth.

amáva	vezía.	fazía	partía
amávas	vezías	fazías	partí as
amáva	vezía	fazía	partí a
amavám	veziám	faziám	partiám
amavátz	veziátz	faziátz	partiátz
amávan	vezían	fazían	partían

- I. In poetry ia is sometimes counted as one syllable: avian, devian.
- 2. For some subsequent developments of western dialects, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 326.
 - 3. For the personal endings, see §§ 164-169.
 - 4. Esser has: era, eras, era, erám, erátz erás, eran eron ero.

PRETERIT, OLD CONDITIONAL, AND IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE.

171. These parts are all formed from the same stem, that of the Latin perfect: cf. § 141, (2). Ex.: cantei, cantera, cantes; vendei, vendera, vendes; partí, partíra, partís; vi, vira, vis; dec, degra, degues.

PRETERIT.

172. Preterits which stress the ending throughout are called weak; those which do not stress the ending throughout are called strong: parti, partist, parti, partim, partitz, partiron is weak; saup, saubist, saup, saubim, saubitz, saupron is strong. Verbs of the first and fourth conjugations regularly

1. Bources, Recherches tutriques et géographiques sur le partiet en exaccogne, 1927.

have weak preterits (amei, finf). Verbs of the second and third, with very few exceptions, originally had strong preterits (placuī>plac, fēcī>fis): many of them, however, developed weak preterits either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal (irasquei, nasquei, tessei tesquei, visquei); some assumed a weak form in -1 in the 1st pers. sg. (dis dissí, pris prenguí, remas remanguí, trais traguí: cf. §§ 173, 177); querre, on the other hand, substituted a strong preterit (quis, etc.) for a weak one.

173. (1) Final $-\bar{i}$, in the first pers. sg., doubtless remained through the earlier stages of Provençal ($habu\bar{i} > agui$, $d\bar{i}x\bar{i} >$ díssi): cf. § 51, (2). Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i ($v\bar{e}n\bar{i} * v\bar{e}nu\bar{i} > * vengui vinc$): cf. § 27; occasionally, however, the e was kept, through the analogy of the other persons (pris pres). Sometimes, instead of falling, the -i took the accent (following the analogy of the fourth conjugation) and remained: agui > ac or agui, agui díssi dis or dissi (cf. § 177).

When the -i was immediately preceded by an accented vowel, it regularly formed a diphthong with that vowel, and did not fall $(fu\bar{i} > f\ddot{u}\dot{i})$: cf. § 51, (3); but -i was simplified to -i (partivi partii > parti).

Before enclitic l, -ei -iei were often reduced to -e -ie: cantie l.

- (2) In the 2d pers. sg., $-st\bar{\imath}$ became -st, a preceding e being changed to i (§ 27): $part\bar{\imath}st\bar{\imath} > partist$, $debu\bar{\imath}st\bar{\imath} > deguist$; sometimes, through the analogy of the 2d pers. pl., e remains (venguest: cf. § 27, 2). Occasionally the final -t disappears: aniest anies, fezist fezis.
- (3) The -t of the 3d pers. sg. was lost in strong preterits: placuit > plac, vidit > vi. In weak preterits, it was retained

by most dialects after é, and by many after i: donet done, vendet vende; parti partit. Cf. § 82, T.

- (4) In the 1st pers. pl., -mus mu' (see § 167) was reduced to -m: $v\bar{\iota}dimu' > vim$.
- (5) The -stis of the 2d pers. pl. regularly became -tz (§ 78, 2), later in many dialects -s (§ 64): debuistis > deguetz degues.
- (6) The -runt of the 3d pers. pl. regularly gave -ron or -ro (§ 83, Nt): partīrunt > partīron partīro, vīdērunt > viron viro. In some dialects -en is substituted for -on: fŭērunt > foron foren (cf. § 169).

The e before -runt, which in classic Latin was usually long, was always short in Vulgar Latin when it was preserved at all: amaverunt > amarunt, fecerunt.

WEAK PRETERITS.

174. (1) In the first and fourth conjugations we find in Latin the following endings:—

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–āvī –āī –āvǐmus –īvī –īī –īvǐmus
–āvǐstī –āstī –āvǐstis –āstis –īvīstī –īstī –ivīstis –īstis
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-āvit -aut -āvēre -āvērunt -ārunt -īvit -īit -īt -īvēre -īvērunt -īrunt

The popular speech preferred in every case the shortened form, and generally reduced $-\bar{a}v\bar{i}mus$, $-\bar{i}v\bar{i}mus$ to $-\bar{a}mus$, $-\bar{i}mus$ (in southern Gaul $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{i}mu'$: § 167), on the analogy of the 2d pers. sg. and pl.

(2) In the second conjugation a few verbs (delēre, flēre, $n\bar{e}re$, $-ol\bar{e}re$, $-pl\bar{e}re$, $v\bar{e}re$) had similar endings (delēvī, etc.), which were doubtless contracted in like fashion in so far as these words were in common use. Most verbs of this conjugation, however, had strong preterits (tacēre, tacuī; vidēre, $v\bar{i}d\bar{i}$; etc.).

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- (3) The third conjugation had in classic Latin no weak endings corresponding to those of the first, second, and fourth; but the vulgar speech developed a set in the following manner. Compounds of dare formed their perfect in $-did\bar{\imath}$ (perdid $\bar{\imath}$); this $-did\bar{\imath}$, in accordance with the principle set forth in § 16, 3, came to be pronounced $-d\acute{e}di$ (condédi); and $-d\acute{e}di$, probably through dissimilation, was shortened to $-d\acute{e}i$ (*credéi). With this form as a starting-point, a weak preterit was created on the analogy of those of the other conjugations, the endings being something like $-\acute{e}i$, esti, $-\acute{e}t$, $-\acute{e}mus$ $-\acute{e}mu'$, $-\acute{e}stis$, $-\acute{e}runt$. This inflection was probably extended to some verbs outside the $-d\acute{e}re$ class (*battéi, etc.?).
 - 175. (1) In Provençal the weak inflection disappeared from the second conjugation, *delēre* and *-plēre* passing into the fourth, and the other weak verbs going out of use.
 - (2) Verbs of the fourth conjugation (except venir) all took the weak endings -i, -ist, -i, -im, -itz, -iron: parti, partist, parti, partim, partitz, partiron. Irregular verbs either disappeared or became regular (sensi = senti), with the exception of venire > venir (vinc).²
 - (3) The new weak endings of the third conjugation developed into -ei, -est, -et, -ém, -etz, -eron: vendei, vendest, vendet, vendem, vendetz, venderon. In the 1st pers. sg. the e often broke (vendiei), and the diphthong was sometimes carried into the 2d pers. sg. (vendiest). These endings were considerably extended in Provençal (cazet, etc.), and were occasionally attached to a strong preterit stem (nasquet, tesquet, venquet, visquet). Most verbs, however, kept their

¹ Cf. the reduction of habēbam to aβea: § 153.

² Tenér tenír really belongs to the second conjugation.

strong preterit (mis, conoc). The -ivi perfect disappeared from the third conjugation: quasivit > *quasit > ques.

(4) The first conjugation discarded its own weak endings, and substituted those of the third: cantei cantiei, cantest cantiest, cantet, cantem, cantetz, canteron. This strange phenomenon seems to have originated as follows: dare, dědī>dar, dei; from dar the ending—ei was readily extended to estar (estei); and from these two very common verbs it spread to the whole first conjugation.

Irregular verbs (except dare, stare) either disappeared or became regular.

- r. According to Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, II, p. 304, Latin -ai became by phonetic process -ei in Vulgar Latin, and -ei or -iei in Provençal. There seems to be no evidence to support this theory. Cf. § 23, 2.
- 2. In the dialects of Béarn and Catalonia the original a remains in some parts of the preterit. can be can bet, who occurs also in Priographical des Troubadours. Angle de 273.
- 176. A final -c, which developed in the strong -ui preterits (§ 184), often became attached to the 3d pers. sg. of weak preterits of the fourth conjugation: floríc, fugíc, iauzíc, partíc.¹ It was sometimes extended to other weak preterits: chantec, entendec, nasquec,² parec.³ We find also a 3d pers. pl. cazegron, etc., and even a 1st pers. sg. ameguí, etc. In some western dialects the final -c was adopted by the whole first conjugation: donec, portec, etc.
- 177. Some strong preterits occasionally assumed weak endings:—
- (1) In the 1st pers. sg. several verbs in -s sometimes either added an -f or shifted the stress to an originally unaccented

¹According to Raimon Vidal, this is the regular ending of the 3d pers. sg. of the fourth conjugation.

In nasquec the ui ending occurs twice.

⁸ Beside parec, coming perhaps from a V. L. * parēvit * parēvuit.

- final -i (cf. §§ 172, 173): dis dissí, pris presí, quis quesí, respos respozí. A few verbs in -c did the same: aic aiguí, bec beguí, conoc conoguí, saup saubí, vinc venguí, volc volguí. An ending -guí being thus established, this syllable was sometimes added to preterits not of the -c class: costrenguí, destrenguí, prenguí, remanguí, restrenguí, traguí.
- (2) In the 3d pers. sg. weak endings are rare: ac aguet, venc venguet.
- (3) In the 3d pers. pl. the weak ending is not uncommon in -s preterits: diron disseron, düistrent düisseron, mesdren mezeron, preson preseron, remastrent remazeron, traisseron. We probably have to deal here, as in (1), with a shift of accent— $d\bar{\imath}x\bar{\check{\epsilon}}runt$ >*dísseron>disseron, etc.: see § 49, (2). The same thing may be true of such a form as agueron, beside ágron, from *á\(\textit{\textit{gwerunt}} = habu\{\textit{e}}runt; such a form as visqueron, on the other hand, is doubtless imitative.

STRONG PRETERITS.

- 178. (1) The reduplicative perfects were discarded in Vulgar Latin, with the exception of $d \in di$ (and its compounds) and $st \in ti$, whose reduplicative character was no longer apparent. Cecidī became *cadui or *cadei; the rest either disappeared or passed into the $-s\bar{i}$ class: $cuc \check{u}rr\bar{i} > *c \check{u}rs\bar{i}$, $mom \check{o}rd\bar{i} > *m\check{o}rs\bar{i}$, $pep\check{e}nd\bar{i} > *p\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}$, $pup\check{u}g\bar{i} > *punx\bar{i}$, $tet\check{e}nd\bar{i} > *t\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}$, $tet\check{e}g\bar{i} > *tax\bar{i} *tanx\bar{i}$.
- (2) The -i perfects were greatly reduced in number in Vulgar Latin. Some disappeared $(\bar{e}g\bar{r})$, some became weak $(f\bar{u}g\bar{\imath}>*fug\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}>\text{fügf})$; others passed into the $-s\bar{\imath}$ or the $-u\bar{\imath}$ class: $preh\bar{e}nd\bar{\imath}>*pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{\imath}>\text{pris}$; $b\bar{\imath}bi\bar{\imath}i>*b\bar{\imath}bui\bar{\imath}>\text{bec}$, $v\bar{e}ni\bar{\imath}>$ * $v\bar{e}nui\bar{\imath}>\text{venc}$. In Provençal only three $-\bar{\imath}$ verbs remained: $f\bar{e}c\bar{\imath}>\text{fis}$, $fu\bar{\imath}>\text{füi}$, $v\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}>\text{vi}$.

- (3) Of the $-s\bar{i}$ class (including $-ss\bar{i}$ and $-x\bar{i}$) over twenty verbs were preserved in Vulgar Latin $(d\bar{i}x\bar{i}, exc\bar{u}ss\bar{i}, m\bar{i}s\bar{i}, trax\bar{i}, \text{etc.})$, and about the same number passed into this class from others $(absco(n)s\bar{i}, *frax\bar{i} *s\bar{u}rs\bar{i}, \text{etc.})$: cf. (1) and (2) above. In Provençal nearly half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-s\bar{i}$ preterits: $rema(n)s\bar{i} > \text{remas}, *resp\bar{o}(n)s\bar{i} > \text{respos}^1$.
- (4) The $-u\bar{\imath}$ class held its own very well in Vulgar Latin (placuī, etc.) and received some additions (natus sum> nacuī, sustūlī> tõluī, vēnī> vēnuī, vīcī> vincuī, vīxī> vīscuī, etc.)². To this class belonged, in Vulgar Latin (and, according to Meyer-Lübke³, in classic Latin also), all perfects in $-v\bar{\imath}$, this ending being pronounced $-w\bar{\imath}$, later $-w\bar{\imath}$ or $-\beta w\bar{\imath}$: $cogn\bar{o}v\bar{\imath}$ > $con\bar{o}vu\bar{\imath}$ > conoc, $cr\bar{e}vit$ > $cr\bar{e}vuit$ > crec, $m\bar{o}-v\bar{\imath}$ > $m\bar{o}vu\bar{\imath}$ > moc. Cf. § 148. In Provençal not far from half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-u\bar{\imath}$ preterits. For a combination af $a-c<-u\bar{\imath}$ stem with a weak ending, see § 175, (3). For the extension of $-c<-u\bar{\imath}$ to other conjugations, see § 176.

179. In the 1st pers. pl. the accent was shifted to the ending, to make this form correspond to the 2d pers. sg. and pl.: $f\bar{e}c\bar{t}mus > *f\bar{e}c\bar{t}mu' > \text{fezem}$ (cf. $fec\bar{t}st\bar{t} > \text{fezist}$, $fec\bar{t}st\bar{t}s > \text{fezetz}$), $*pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{t}mus > *pres\bar{t}mu' > \text{prezem}$, $deb\bar{u}tmus > de \beta w\bar{t}mu' > \text{deguem}$. Exceptions are $f\bar{u}tmus > \text{fom}$, $v\bar{t}dtmus >$



¹ All verbs in -ndere took the perfect in -sī: ascos, defes, pris, respos, etc. Lēgère took * lɛɪs leis through the analogy of the p. p. lectum. So fingère took * fixī > feis through fictum; frangère, pingère, tangère did likewise (frais, peis, tais); and in Provençal cénher < cingère, esténher < exstinguère, planher < plangère followed the example of these (ceis, esteis, plais): hence all verbs in -nher have the preterit in -s.

See Zs., XXVIII, 97.

⁸ Gram., II, p. 357.

vim; in these verbs the 2d pers. forms also are monosyllabic (füst, fotz; vist, vitz).

- 180. We find in some verbs an irregular 3d pers. pl. without -r-, made by adding -on or -en to the 3d pers. sg., the final consonant of which is voiced in all verbs in which it is voiced in the other persons of the plural: (aucire) aucis, aucison; (plánher) plais, pláisson; (prenre) pres, preson; (remanre) remas, remáson; (venir) venc, venguen; (voler) volc, volgon.
- I. Prenre has preiron (beside preson preseron), probably through the analogy of feiron < fēcērunt. Mairon, from maner, is perhaps to be explained in the same way.
- 181. (1) Through the change of -e- to -i- by the influence of a final -i, as described in § 173, (1), a distinction was established between the first and the third person singular of some preterits: crēvī> cric, crēvit> crec; fēcī> fis, fēcit> fes; * $pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i} > pris$, * $pr\bar{e}(n)sit > pres$; $t\bar{e}nu\bar{i}$ * $t\bar{e}nu\bar{i}$ 1> tinc, těnuit *tēnuit> tenc; vēnī * vēnuī1> vinc, vēnit * vēnuit> Metre, also, has mis, mes, which may come from *missi *missit (cf. missum) = misi, misit; or perhaps mis comes from mīsī and mes is analogical. Through the analogy of such forms, querre has quis, ques. In the preterit of poder, both potui and potuit would regularly have given poc puoc puec (§ 37), but poc was kept for the 3d person, and puoc puec was used for the 1st. The preterit of voler differentiates the two persons similarly - vuelc, volc; here the diphthong (perhaps under the influence of puec) is borrowed from the present, where we have *voleo > vuelh, *volet > vol (§ 37). Aver, likewise, borrows a distinction from the present: aic, ac reproduce the vowels of ai, a; aic + aguí > aiguí.

¹ Tenui and vēni influenced each other.

- (2) For -f as a characteristic of the first person, see § 177, (1).
- (3) For -c as a distinctive mark of the third person, see § 176.
- 182. The three -1 perfects developed in Provençal as follows:
 - (1) Facere>faire (*fare>far) has:

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fēcī > fis, fezi fēcīmu' > fezem
fēcīstī > fezist fezis fēcīstis > fezetz fezes
fēcīt > fetz fes fēcērunt > feiron feiro
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- 1. We do not find, in the 1st pers. sg., as we should expect (§ 65, C'), fitz beside fix; doubtless the form came early under the influence of mis, pris, quis, etc. For fexi, see § 177, (1). There is also a form fi, due, perhaps, to the analogy of vi < vidi; corresponding to fi are 3d pers. sg. fe, and pl. fem, fes, feron. A rare figui is evidently made on the model of aigui, etc. In the 3d pers. sg. we find also fei, which seems to be patterned after feiron or after the present fai.
- (2) Esse (>*ĕssĕre>esser estre) had originally a long u in the perfect. In literary Latin the u was shortened, but the popular speech seems to have kept \bar{u} beside \check{u} . The Provençal 1st and 2d pers. sg. apparently come from $f\bar{u}\bar{i}$, * $f\bar{u}st\bar{i}=fu\bar{s}t\bar{i}$ (although Pr. füi might be taken from $f\check{u}\bar{i}$), while the other forms presuppose \check{u} :

```
fūi > fūi fūlmus *fūmu' > fọm
fūlstī *fūstī > fūst fūs fūlstis *fūstis > fọtz fọs
fūil *fūl > fọ, fọn, fọnc fūlunl *fūrunl > fọron fọro, fọren
```

- 1. A rare fo in the 1st pers. sg. seems to be simply borrowed from the 3d. In the 3d pers. sg., fon beside fo is due to the analogy of -on -o in the 3d pers. pl., and, in general, of such double forms as bon bo, mon mo, son so, ton to: cf. § 63, (5). Fonc shows the influence of tenc, venc.
 - (3) Vidēre > vezer has:

```
    vīdī
    >*viði *við vi, vic
    vīdīmus *vīdīmu' > *viðmu *viim vim

    vīdīstī
    > vist vis
    vīdīstis
    > vitz vis

    vīdī
    >*við vi, vit, vic
    vīdērunt
    >*viðrun viron viro
```

- I. The 1st pers. sg. vic is patterned upon aic < habuī, cric < crēvi, etc. The 2d pers. forms are irregular, as we should expect *vezist, *vezetz: evidently the 2d pers. followed the analogy of the 1st and 3d. In the 3d pers. sg., vit and vic follow the model of partit, partic, etc.: see § 173, (3), and § 176.
- 183. In the -sī perfect the 3d pers. pl. presented difficulties. If the -e- of the penult fell, an s or z and an r were brought together. Most dialects apparently preserved the -e-, and shifted the accent to it (aucizeron, condüisseron, disseron, prezeron, remazeron, traisseron), or else borrowed outright the weak ending (responderon): cf. § 49, (2), and § 177, (3). Dialects which lost the -e- too early to follow this method, generally suppressed the sibilant (aucíron, diron, meron from metre, remaron), or omitted the -r- and formed the 3d pers. pl. directly from the 3d pers. sg. (aucízon, pláisson, prezon, remázon: § 180), or else imitated a preterit of another class (mairon from maner, preiron from prenre, doubtless patterned after feiron < fēcerunt); some borderland dialects kept the sibilant and the r, and developed a dental between them (düystrent < dūxĕrunt, mesdren < mīsĕrunt + * mĭssĕrunt: § 70, Sr, Zr).

As examples of the $-s\bar{i}$ perfect we may take the preterit of dire $< d\bar{i}c\bar{e}re$ and penre prenre $< pr(eh)\bar{e}nd\bar{e}re$:—

```
(I) dīxī > dis, dissí dīximus *dīximus > dissem
dīxistī > dissist dīxistis > dissetz disses
dīxit > dis dīxistunt > disseron, diron diro
```

(2) *prē(n)sī > pris, pres *prē(n)sīmus * prēsīmu' > presem *prē(n)sīstī > presist *prē(n)sīstis > presetz preses *prē(n)sit > pres *prē(n)sērunt > preseron, preson, [preiron

(3) Escriure < scrīběre has, beside escris < scrīpsī, a preterit escrius (cf. p. p. escriut escrit escrich), in which the u is probably due to the influence of the infinitive.

(4) For dissí, presí, quesí, respozí, see § 177, (1). For pris pres, etc., see § 173, (1).

184. In the $-u\bar{\imath}$ perfect the development depends somewhat upon the consonant preceding the u. The treatment of the various cons. + w groups, which was discussed in § 72, may be illustrated by $habuit > ac^1$, $cr\bar{e}vit *cr\bar{e}vuit > crec^2$; $n\bar{o}cuit > noc^3$; $s\bar{e}dit *s\bar{e}duit > sec$, $p\bar{o}tuit > poc$; $valuit > valc^4$, $t\bar{e}nuit *t\bar{e}nuit > tenc^5$, $m\bar{e}ruit > merc$; $sapuit > saup^6$: the noteworthy features are the change of u to -c (through w, gw, g), the absorption of the preceding consonant unless it be a liquid, a nasal, or a p, the preservation of the liquid or nasal, and the metathesis of the p.

Aver < habere, poder < * pŏtere pŏsse, voler < * vŏlere vělle, saber < * sapere sapere will serve as examples (for the accentuation of the 3d pers. pl., see § 16, 2): —

- (1) habuī > ac, aguí, aic, aiguí habuĭmus *aβwimu' > aguem habuĭstī > aguíst habuĭstis > aguetz agues habuit > ac habuĕrunt > ágron ágro, agueron
- 1. For agul (begul, conogul), see § 177, (1). For aic, aigul, (cric), see § 181, (1). For agueron (visqueron), see § 177, (3).
 - (2) pôtuī > pọc puộc puệc potušmus * potwimu' > poguệm potušsti > poguíst potušstis > poguetz poguęs pôtuit > pọc, pọt potušrunt > pogron pogro
- 1. For puoc, see § 181, (1). Pot is apparently due to the combined influence of weak preterits and the parts of poder in which the dental is preserved.

¹ So bibuit > bec, debuit > dec.

So cognovit > conoc, movit > moc.

^{*}So *còcuit > coc, jacuit > iac, * nascuit > nasc, * pa(s)cuit > pac, placuit > plac, tacuit > tac, * tescuit > tesc, * vincuit > venc, * viscuit > visc.

^{*}So caluit > calc, * toluit > tolc, voluit > volc.

⁵ So * vēnuit > venc.

So eripuit > ereup, recipuit > receup.

- (3) võluī > volc, vuelc, volguí volušnus *volwšnu' > volguem
 volušstī > volguíst volušstis > volguetz volgues
 võluit > volc volušrunt > volgron volgro
- 1. For vuelc (tinc, vinc), see § 181, (1); for volgul (vengul), § 177, (1).
- (4) sapuī > saub, saubi sapuīmus * sapuīmu' > saubem sapuīstī > saubist sapuīstis > saubetz saubes sapuīt > saup sapuērunt > saubron saubro, saupron
- For saubl, see § 177, (1). For saupron (saupra, saupts, sauptt), see § 65, P, 3; cf. § 148, (2).

OLD CONDITIONAL.

- 185. The old conditional came from the Latin pluperfect indicative, which had been supplanted in its pluperfect sense by a compound form, and was gradually restricted in its use to the functions of a preterit, a perfect conditional, and a simple conditional: see § 141, (2). In Provençal it had only the conditional meaning; and as the new conditional rendered it superfluous, it fell into disuse (with the exception of ágra and fora) in the 13th and 14th centuries: see § 142, (2).
- 186. In the fourth conjugation the old conditional comes from the contracted form of the pluperfect (audīram < audīvēram). Weak verbs of the third conjugation constructed a similar form (*vendēram). First conjugation verbs started with the contracted pluperfect (amāram < amāvēram), but in Provençal substituted e for á, as in the preterit: § 175, (4). The Provençal types of the old conditional of weak verbs are, therefore, represented by: amera, vendēra, auzīra. The inflection is as follows:—

amera amerám auzíra auzirám ameras amerátz auzíras auzirátz amera ameran auzíra auzíran

187. Strong verbs of the -i and the -ui classes regularly



took their old conditional directly from the Latin pluperfect: fēcēram > feira, fūēram > fora, vīdēram > vira; habūēram * άβ-wēram (§ 16, 2) > ágra, pŏtūēram > pogra, vŏlūēram > volgra, sapūēram > sáubra sáupra (§ 65, P, 3). Of course the Latin pluperfect, and therefore the Provençal conditional, followed the shift of the perfect if it changed from one class to another: vēnī > *vēnuī, hence * vēnūēram > vengra. The inflection is as follows:—

fora	forám	ágra	agrám
foras	forátz forás	ágras	agrátz agrás
fora	foran	ágra	ágran

- 1. Faire has féra (cf. feron) beside féira.
- 2. For saupra, cf. §148, (2), and § 184, (4), 1, and § 192.
- 3. Devir has beside dégra a form déura, evidently influenced by the new conditional, deurla.
 - 4. Páisser, plazér have beside págra, plágra the forms paisséra, plazéra.

havi Visio

- 188. Strong verbs of the $-s\bar{i}$ class regularly form their old conditional on the same plan as the 3d pers. pl. of the preterit (§ 183): $(d\bar{i}x\check{e}ram)$ díra, cf. díron; (*prēsĕram) preira, cf. preiron; (arsĕram) arsera, cf. arseron.
- 189. It will be noted that in all verbs, weak and strong, the old conditional may be constructed from the 3d pers. pl. of the preterit by changing -on to -a.

Imperfect Subjunctive.

190. The Provençal imperfect subjunctive came from the Latin pluperfect subjunctive, which in Vulgar Latin assumed the functions of the imperfect and generally displaced it, its own place having been taken by a compound form: see § 141, (2).

191. For weak verbs the basis was the contracted form of the first and fourth conjugations ($am\bar{a}ssem < am\bar{a}v\bar{i}ssem$, $aud\bar{i}ssem < aud\bar{i}v\bar{i}ssem$); weak verbs of third conjugation had a similar analogical form (* $v\bar{e}ndessem$). First conjugation verbs substituted e for á, as in the perfect and the old conditional: § 175, (4); § 186. The Provençal types are: ames, vendes, auzís. The inflection is:

ames amessem auzís auzissem
amesses amessetz es auzisses auzissetz es
ames amessen en eo auzís auzissen en eo

192. Strong verbs regularly made their imperfect directly from the Vulgar Latin form of the pluperfect: fecissem > fezes, fütssem *füssem > fos, vidissem > vezes, venissem *venuissem > vengues; dixissem > disses, *pre(n)sissem > prezes; habuissem > agues, potuissem > pogues, voluissem > volgues, sapuissem > saubes saupes (§ 65, P, 3). The inflection is:—

fọs	fossem	agues	aguessem, acsem
fosses	fossetz –es	aguesses	aguessetz –es, acsetz –es
fos	fossen -on -o	agues	aguessen -on -o

- The syncopated forms in the 1st and 2d pers. pl. are common to the
 -uī class: decsém, iacsém, pocsém, saupsém.
- 2. In the 3d pers. pl. -an sometimes takes the place of -en or -on: mezėssan, saubėssan. This ending is doubtless borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional.
- 3. Vezér has vis beside vezés. From faire we find in the 3d pers. pl. fésson.
 - 4. Metre has mezés, due, no doubt, to the analogy of mes and of prezés.
- 193. Some dialects have an ending -a, -as, -a, -ám, -átz, an, borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional, but added to the stem of the imperfect subjunctive: chantessa, vendessa, floríssa; fossa.

Too a lest of way, 21/2, with a Three forms, we auglide 322

INDEX

N. B. — The references are to paragraphs.

```
a: 23-24. — a: 24. — Unaccented
  a: 40, (1); 45; 48, 1; 51, (1).
-a -anem: 95, 2.
ab: 65, P, 2.
abans: 65, B, 2.
Abbreviations: p. VI.
abet: 65, B, 2.
Ablative: 91, (5).
abora: 65, B, 2.
авеа: 87, в.
ac (Lat.): 43, 2.
Accent: - Primary: 16-17. - Sec-
  ondary: 18; 45, 1.
Accented Vowels: see Vowels.
Accusative: 91, (5).
ad: see as.
ad-: 66, I.
ades : 25, 1, (e).
Adjectives 102-109. - Comparison:
  106-109. — Declension: 102-104;
  107. - Neuter: 104; 108; 128, 1.
  - Numeral: 110-113. - Pronom-
  inal: see Pronouns.
adouts: 33, 4.
Adverbial -s: 82, S, 3.
Adverbs: 82, S, 3: 105; 108.
æ: 22. — Unaccented æ: 41.
-age: see -aticum.
```

```
ai < habeo: 73, βy.
aigla: 72, Kw, 1.
aiglentina: 72, Kw, 1.
aigua: 72, Kw, 1.
aire: 51, 4.
-aire -ador; 91, (6); 101, (3); 101,
  (3), 1.
aital: 74, 2; 136, (6).
aitan: 74, 2; 136, (7).
albire: 87, r.
alcun: 136, (1).
Alphabet: - Phonetic: p. VII. -
  Provençal: 7; 9.
alquant: 136, (2).
alques: 136, (3).
als: 136, (4).
altre: 136, (5).
altretal: 136, (6).
altretan: 136, (7).
aluc: 65, C, 2.
Alvernhe: 87, r.
amdui: III, 2.
amiu: 51, 3; 65, G, 1.
ams: 111, 2.
Analogy: — Initial Syllable: 42. —
  Intertonic Syllable: 46.
anar: 137, (1); 150; 162, (1).
anedier: 45, 3.
```

٥,

anet: 48, 1. anta: 39, 2. apud: see ab. aquestos: 51, 2. ar, ara: 33, 3. -arius: 23, 1; 73, Ry, 1. arma: 87, n + m.arnei: 25, 3. Articles 116-119. - Definite: 116; 118-119. - Indefinite: 117. asabentar: 73, Py. -aticum: 49, (4); 52, (3); 65, G, 3; 73, Tg. atressi: 74, 2. atretal: 74, 2; 136, (6). atretan: 74, 2; 136, (7). au: - Accented: 39. - Unaccented: 41. auca: 65, C, 1; 80, βc. aucel: 65, C', 1; 80, βc'. aucire: 43; 162, (2). aurir: 65, D, footnote; 65, R, 2. auvent: 65, S, 2. auvir: 65, D, footnote; 65, S, 2. Auxiliary Verbs: 140-141. auzil: 28. auzir: 160; 162, (3); 164, (1); 168; 169; 186; 191. aver: 73, β y; 87, β ; 137, (1); 148, (1), (2), 1; 150; 152; 162, (4); 167; 168; 170; 173, (1); 177, (1), (2), (3); 181, (1); 184, (1); 187; I Q2. avia: 87, β. avinen: 46, 1. az: 82, D. azaut: 52, (2), 1.

 $b > \beta$: 55, B.

bat: 72, Tw, 1. berbitz: 25, 2, (a). Bernat: 87, r. bisbes; 41, 1. borgues: 73, Rg'. brey: $65, \beta, 3$. briu: 28, 3. broc: 37, 1. c palatalized: 55; 61; 62, (3); 65, G; 67, (1); 70, C'r; 73, C'y, Dg, Lc'y, Nc'y, Ndg, Ng, Rc'y, Rg, Rrg, Rtg, Tg; 74; 76; 77; 78; 80, Ksc, Ppc; 92, (2). cabil: 27, 1. cabirol: 86. cada: 136, (8). caire: see cazer. caitiu: 80, Pt. calacom: 136, (9). calmelh: 45, 3. cal que: 136, (10). camisa: 25, 2, (a). can: 136, (11). canorgue: 65, N, 1; 87, n + n. cap: 100. caramel: 87, L caresma: 45, 3. , }· cascun: 136, (12). Case: 91. cazer: 137, (1); 148, (2); 150; 162, (5); 176; 178, (1). ch (Greek): 57, θ . chastiu: 51, 3; 65, G, 1. cibdat: 80, βd. cieutat: 44, 2. cilh: 25, 2, (b). cinc: 72, Nw; 87, kw.

ciptat: 80, Bt.

```
ciri: 25, 2, (c).
ciutat: 80, Bt.
clerc: 47, (3).
clerge: 52, (3).
clergue: 47, (3); 52, (3).
cobra: 33, I.
cointe: 47, 1; 80, Gnt.
colbe: 48, 1.
colp: 22; 48, I.
coma; 51, 5.
comensar: 45, I.
comergar: 87, m + n.
Comparative: 106-108.
Comparison: 106-109.
comprar; 45, 3.
Conditional: - New: 142, (2); 149
  -151. Endings: 153. - Old: 141,
  (2); 185-189. Strong: 187-188.
  Weak: 186.
conge: 47, 1; 80, Gnd.
Conjugation: 137-193. — Auxiliary
  Verbs: 140-141. - Change of
  Conj.: 137. — Compound Tenses:
  141. - Conditional: see Condi-
  tional. - Deponent Verbs: 140.
  - Future: 142, (1); 149-152.
  Endings: 152. — Gerund: 143;
  145. — Imperative: 156. — Im-
  perfect Indicative: 170. - Im-
  perfect Subjunctive: 141, (2);
  190-193. Strong: 192. Weak:
  191. - Inchoative: 138; 145. -
  Infinitive: 144. Used as noun:
  94; 144, 4. — New verbs: 139. —
  Passive: 140. — Participle: see
  Participle. - Perfect Tenses: 141.
  - Pluperfect: 141. - Present:
  see Present. - Preterit: see Pret-
  erit.
```

```
conois = conosc: 78, 3.
conoisser: 78, 3; 80, Gn; 148, (2);
  162, (6); 175, (3); 177, (1); 178,
  (4).
consi: 85.
Consonants: - Dissimilation: 87.
  -Final: 81-83. Groups: 83.
  Single: 82. — Germanic: 56. —
  Greak: 57. — Initial: 59-62.
  Groups: 62. Single: 60-61.—
  Insertion: 85. — Latin: 54-55.
  - Medial: 63-80. Contiguous
  to -s in Pr.: 63-64; 65, L, R;
  78, 2. Final in Pr.: 63-64; 65,
  L; 65, M, 1; 65, R, 1; 76, (2).
  Groups: 66-80: Cons. +1, 68-
  69; Cons. + r, 70-71; Cons + w,
  72; Cons. + y, 73; Ct, gd, gn,
  ks, 79-80; Double Cons., 67; L
  + cons., 74; M + cons., 75;
  Miscellaneous, 79-80; N + cons.,
  76; Ps, pt, 79-80; R + cons.
  77; S + cons., 78. Single: 65.
  - Metathesis: 86. - Sporadic
  Change: 84-87.
contranher: 25, 4.
cor: 100.
cors: 100.
cossint: 28, 2.
costa: 33, I.
costum: 72, Sw; 80, Dn.
covinen: 46, I.
coyre: 73, Pry.
cozer < consuere: 72, Sw; 137, (2).
cozer < coquere: 49, (1); 72, Kw, 2.
creire: 145; 148, (2); 160; 162, (7);
  167; 168.
creisser: 49, (1); 162, (8).
cremedar: 60. I.
```

criar: 44, 4. Demonstratives: 130-132. cridar: 41, 2. demora: 35, 1. crollar: 41, 2; 68, Tl. crusel: 25, 1, (b). cuende: 47, 1; 80, Gnd. cug: 80, Yd. desme: 80, C'm. cuit: 80, Yd. -culus: 47, (2); 68, Cl. dalgat: 44, 6. dar: 137, (1); 162, (9); 175, (4). Dative: 91, (4); 116; 120; 133. daus: 44, 6. 192, 1. dec: 27, 2. dia: 90; 95; 95, 1. dech < debeo: 162, (11). Declension: 89-136. — Adjectives: -didi: 174, (3). 102-104; 107. - Articles: 116diious: 91, (3). 119. - Change of Decl.: Nouns, diman: 43. 90; Adj., 103, 1. — Disappearance dimecres: 87, r. of Decl.: 91, (6). - Fifth Decl.: dimenge: 43. 90; 97. - Final -ci, -gi: 92, (2). dimercres: 17, 2. — Final -i: 92, (1). — First Decl.: 95. - Fourth Decl.: 90; 96. dins: 25, 2, (d).Infinitives: 94. — Inflection -o dintre: 25, 2, (d). -onem: 101, (3); 101, (3), 1.-Invariable Nouns and Adj.: 93. - New Inflections: -a -anem, 95, 2; -us -onem, 96, 2. - New nom. sg.: 98. - New plural: 93; 99; 102, 2. - Numerals: 111; 112. - Pronouns: 116; 120-136. Dissimilation: 87. - Second Decl.: 96. - Third Decl.: 97-101. Definite Article: 116; 118-119. don: 134; 135, (2). degun: 87, n + n.dei < debeo: 73, βy. -dei . 174, (3). deime: 80, C'm. nants. dreit: 41, 2. dementre: 43.

Deponent Verbs: 140. depte: 47,(3); 80, β t. derrier: 30, footnote. destruire: 162, (10). deude: 47, (3); 80, βd. deute: 47, (3); 80, βt. dever: 27, 2; 73, by; 144, 4; 148, (2); 150; 160; 162, (11); 167, (2); 171; 173, (2), (5); 179; 187, (3); Dialects: 3-8, 10-13. dimergue: 65, N, I. Diphthongs: see æ, au, œ. — Final Diphthongs: 51, (3). dire; 49, (1); 137, (2); 144, (1); 148, (3); 162, (12); 172; 177, (1), (3); 183; 183, 1; 188; 192. disnar: 44, 3; 87, y. dit = det: 25, 2, (a); 65, Y, I. dizer: 49, (1); see dire. dos = dous : 74, (2).dotze: 40, 1; 80, Dc'. Double Consonants: see Conso-

```
duire: 148, (3); 162, (13); 177, (3);
  183.
Duration of Pr. Language: 1; 14.
Duration of Pr. Literature: 1.
e: 25-27; 29; 41.—Before Nasal:
  29. - Unaccented: 41; see Vow-
  els.
e: 28-30; 41. — Breaking: 30. —
  Unaccented: 41; see Vowels.
e: 40, (2); 55, Y; 61, Y; 65, Y;
  73.
e-before initial s + \cos s : 62, (3).
-e in I st. pers. sg. of present: 52,
  (6); 164, (1).
ecce: 131, (1); 132, (3), (4).
eccu: 43, 2; 131, (1); 132, (3), (4).
eé>e: 40, I.
ei = ai: 23, 2; 152, 1; 162, (4);
  175, (4).
-ei in pret.: 174, (3); 175, (3), (4).
eigal: 72, Kw, 1.
-eire -edor: 101, (3), 1.
eis: 80, Ps; 132, (2).
eissi < ecce hic: 80, Cc'; 82, C.
eissi < et sīc: 80, Ts.
eissir: 30, 2; 44, 3; 159, (2); 162,
  (14).
elig; 28, 3.
emblar: 69, 1.
empastre: 69, 1.
en < domine: 41, 3.
en < in: 82, N.
en < inde: 123.
Enclitics: 19; 118, (1), (2), 2; 122;
  123; 123, 2.
enclutge: 52, (4); 80, Dn; 85.
Endings: see Personal Endings.
engal: 72, Kw; 85.
```

engoissa: 33, 1; 43. enteir: 70, Gr, footnote. envanesir: 43. er, era: 33, 3. er<ero: 149, 1. es < est: 28, 5; 83, St. escoisson: 73, Ty, 3. escremir: 86. escrich: 148, (3). escrire : 144, (3). escrit: 52, (2), 1. escrius: 183, (3). escriut: 148, (3). escur: 43. espasa: 65, T, 3. espelh: 28, 5. esper: 25, 1, (d). esprit: 17, 1. essem: 82, L. esser: 49, (2); 148, (3); 148, 1; 149, 1; 150; 162, (15); 167; 170, 4; 173, (1); 179; 182, (2); 182, (2), 1; 187; 192; 193. estanc: 80, Gn; 86. estar: 137, (1); 162, (16); 175, (4). estela: 28, 5. Esteve: 48, 1. estraniar: 73, Ny. estre: see esser. esturmen: 86. $-\bar{e}tis > etz$: 25, 1, (a). Euphonic Vowel: 52; 164, (1); 165; 166. Extent of Pr. Territory: 2; p. VIII. ez: 65, T, 3; 82, T. faim: 52, (4), 1; 80, C'm. faire: 137, (1); 150; 148, (3); 156,

1; 160; 162, (17); 168, 1; 170;

```
173, (2); 179; 181, 1; 182, (1);
                                        Germanic Consonants: 56.
   182, (1), 2; 187; 187, 1; 192;
                                        Germanic Verbs: 139.
                                        Gerund: 143; 145.
   192, 3.
faitz: 80, C't.
                                        ges: 100, 1.
far: 137, (1); 144, 2; see faire.
                                        ginh: 28, 3.
fau < fagum: 65, G, 1,
                                        ginhol: 86, I.
feble: 47, (3); 87, 1; 103, 1.
                                        gisar: 65, R, 2.
fei = fe: 25, 3.
                                        gitar: 44, 3; 80, Ct.
ferre = fer: 52, (1), 2.
                                        glai = glatz: 73, C'y, footnote.
fetge: 52, (3), 2.
                                        glavi: 65, Y, 2.
fier: 30, I.
                                        gliesa: 30; 41, I.
 Final Consonants: see Consonants.
                                        granolha: 60, 1.
fixel: 25, 1, (b).
                                        grau: 51, 3; 65, D, 2.
Folco: 101, (3), 1.
                                        grazal: 65, T, 3.
fontaina: 23, 4.
                                        grazir: 65, T, 3.
fores: 51, 4.
                                        Greek Consonants: 57.
formir: 86.
                                        Greek Verbs: 139.
fouzer: 74, (4); 100.
                                        Greek Vowels: 22.
fragel: 47, (3),
                                       greug: 65, β, 3.
frair: 52, (1), 1.
                                       greuga: 28, 8.
freble: 47, (3); 87, 1; 103, 1.
                                       grey: 65, B, 3.
                                       gua: 61, 1.
freg: 31, 1; 80, Gd.
freit: 31, 1; 80, Gd.
                                       guaina: 61, 1.
frevol: 47, (3).
                                       guastar: 61, 1.
Future: 142, (1); 149-152. — End-
   ings: 152.
                                        habebam: 87, B.
                                        hic: 132, (1).
g palatalized: 55; 61; 65, G, Y;
   73, Lg', Llg', Ng', Ng'y, Rg'; 77;
                                        i: 31-32; 41. — Unaccented: 41;
   92, (2).
                                          see Vowels.
ganre: 87, 1.
                                        i: 40, (2); 55, Y; 61, Y; 65, Y;
garensa: 44, 5.
Gascon: 3; 10; 23, 2; 38; 62, (2);
                                        i<d, t: 65, D; 70, Dr, Tr.
   152, 1.
                                        -\bar{1}: 27; 51, (2), (3); 92, (1); 125,
Gasconha: 61, 1.
                                          (1); 131, (3), (4); 173, (1).
gazardo: 42, I.
                                       -i, 1st pers. sg. of present: 52, (6);
gen = genh: 73, Ny.
                                          164, (1).
Gender: 89.
                                       -i<-ium: 53; 96, 1.
Genitive: 91, (3); 116.
                                       ia < jam: 82, M.
```

```
Iacme: 80, Cm.
iai: 39, I.
iasser: 65, C', 2; see iaser.
iassey; 65, N, 2.
iazer: 65, C', 2; 160; 162, (18);
  192, 1.
ie<ç: 30.
ié>e: 40, I.
ier; 30, I.
-ier: see -arius.
ieu: 32; 44, 2.
ilha: 65, S, 1.
illac: 16, 4.
ille: 115; 116, 118; 132, (3).
illic: 16, 4.
Imperative: 156; 165; 168.
Imperfect Indicative: 170.
Imperfect Subjunctive: 141, (2);
  190-193. — Strong: 192.
  Weak: 191.
Impersonal Construction: 104.
Inchoative: 138; 145.
Indefinite Article: 117.
Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives:
Indicative; see Conjugation.
Inflection: see Conjugation and
  Declension.
Initial Consonants: see Conso-
  nants.
ins: 25, 2, (d).
Insertion of Consonant: 85.
Interrogatives: 133-135.
Intervocalic Consonants: see Con-
  sonants, Medial, Single.
Invariable Nouns: 93.
invern: 85.
ioi: 39, I.
ibve: 47, (3); 49, (3).
```

```
iovén: 89, 1.
ipse: 132, (2).
-ire -idor: 101, (3), 1.
-isc-: 138; 145; 155; 156.
isme: 28, 3.
isnel: 44, 3.
issarnit: 46, 1.
issir: 44, 3; see eissir.
iste: 132, (4).
iu: 32.
iure: 25, 2, (c).
ius: 33, 2.
ivern: 44, 3.
-ifeir: 57, 2; 139.
j: see y.
k: 57, K; 62, (1).
l>u: 65, L; 67, (2); 73, Lc'y,
  Lty; 74, (2).
Latin: 14; see Consonants and
  Vowels.
laus: 89, 1; 93, (2); 101, (1), (2).
lauseta: 41, 1.
Learned Words: 15. — Cf. also:
  17, 1; 25, 1, (c); 25, 2, (b); 45, 4;
  50; 65, β, 6; 65, C, 2; 65, C', 4;
  65, D, 4; 65, F, 1; 65, G, 2; 65,
  G', 1; 65, P, 4; 65, T, 5; 65, Y,
  4; 68, Bl, Pl; 70, Cr, Dr, Gr, Pr,
  Tr; 72, Nw, 1; 73, \betay, Cty, C'y,
  Ly, Nty, Py, Ry, Ty; 80, Bs;
  82, B, L, M; 83, Ks; 84; 91, (3);
  109; 113.
legir: 65, Y, (3), footnote.
lei: 101, (2), 3.
leis: 125, (1).
```

leo: 101, (3), I.

Ihun: 86. Limousin: 5-6; 13, (1); 24. lire: 28, 1; 137, (2); 144, 1. 11 > 1h : 67, (2).Locative: 91, (1). luenh: 36, 1; 37. lunk: 86, 1. lur: 33, 2. maint: 136, (14). mais: 65, Y, (2), footnote; 82, S, I, 4. malapte: 47, (3); 80, \(\beta\)t. malaude: 47, (3); 80, βd. malaut: 52, (2), I. malaute: 47, (3); 80, 8t. + n. man: 96; 96, 3. maneira: 72, Nw, I. maniar: 73, Ndg. mar: 100. marbre: 71. margue: 52, (3); 87, m + n. marme: 87, 1; 100. marsip: 87, m + n. massis: 65, β, 4. Medial Consonants: see Consonants. meesmes: 65, T, 3. mege: 49, (4); 73, Dg. melhura: 33, 2. -men: 105. menhs: 65, N, 2. meravilha: 25, 2, (b). mercey: 65, D, 1, mermar: 87, n + m. mes-: 45, 2. messer: 65, Y, 3. mestier: 91, (3). met-: 131, (2). ı.

Metathesis: 86. metre: 148, (3); 181, (1); 183; 192, mezeis: 65, T, 3. mezesmes: 65, T, 3. mica: 65, G, footnote. midons: 91, (2); 93, (2). mier: 30, 1. mint: 28, 2. molt: 136, (15); see mon, mot, mul. mon = molt: 74, 1.monge: 52, (3). mongue: 52, (3). Mood: see Conjugation. morgue: 52, (3); 65, N, 1: 87, m morir: 137, (1). mostier: 25, 1, (e); 45, 3. mot = molt: 74, (2).mou: 37, I. moure: see mover. mover: 137, (2); 150; 159, (1); 160. 162, (19); 178, (4). mul = molt: 74, 1.mulierem: 16, 1; 40, 1. -mus>-mu': 167. natis: 65, B, 4. nebla: 28, 4. nede: 47, (1), (3). negun: 136, (16); see degun. neir: 70, Gr, footnote. nembrar: 87, m + m. nemes: 51, 4. ner: 25, 1, (e). net: 47, (1), (3); 80, Td. neu: 25, 1, (e) Neuter Adjectives: 104; 108; 128,

```
Neuter Nouns: 89; 96; 96, 1; 100.
                                      pais: 25, 2, (c).
ney: 65, B, 3.
                                       palafrei: 25, 3.
mible: 28, 4.
                                       palai: 73, Ty, 1.
niu: 51, 3; 65, D, 2.
                                       Palatalization: 55, C, G, Y; 67,
niula: 28, 4.
                                          (2); 73.
Nominative: 91, (6).
                                       palle: 74, 3.
non: 82, N.
                                       Participle: - Past (= Perfect): 140;
                                          141, (1); 146-148. — Present:
mora: 33, I.
mossas: 38, 2.
                                          143, (1); 145.
nou: 37, 1.
                                       Particles: 19; see Enclitics, Pro-
Nouns: 89-101; see Case, Declen-
                                         clitics.
  sion, Gender.
                                       partir: 145; 160; 162, (20); 165;
nul: 136, (17); see lhun, lunk.
                                         167; 168; 169; 170; 171; 172;
Numerals: -- Cardinal: 110-111.
                                          173, (2), (3); 175, (2); 176.
  Ordinal: 112-113.
                                       parven: 85.
                                       pasmar: 87, 8.
o: 33-34; 36; 41. — Before Nasal:
                                       Passive: 140.
  36. — Unaccented: 41; see Vow-
                                       Past Participle: see Participle.
  els.
                                       pauc: 136, (19).
                                       pasiment: 65, $, 5.
Q: 33, 1; 35-37; 41.—Irregular:
  33, I. - Unaccented: 41; see
                                       pege: 52, (3), 2.
  Vowels.
                                       Peire: 96, 2.
o < hoc: 82, C; 132, (1).
                                       peiura: 33, 2.
o < aut: 41, 4.
                                       peleri: 87, r.
-o -onem: 101, (3); 101, (3), 1.
                                       penchenar: 85.
oc: 82, C.
                                       penre: 71; 87, 1; see prendre.
œ: 22, 41. — Unaccented: 41.
                                       perdre: 162, (21); 174, (3).
                                       perdris: 85.
olifan: 42, I.
om: 101, (2), 2; 136, (18).
                                       Perfect: 141; see Preterit.
ome: 47, (3); 49, (3).
                                       Perfect Participle: see Participle.
omne: 47, (3); 49, (3).
                                       perilh: 25, 2, (b).
onse: 38, 1; 76, (1)
                                       perquei: 25, 3.
0ó>0: 40, I.
                                       perri: 70, 1.
orsol: 73, Rc'y.
                                       Personal Endings: - Conditional:
                                         New, 153; Old, 186-187. - Fu-
ou: 33, I.
os: 82, T.
                                         ture: 152. - Imperfect: Indica-
                                         tive, 164-169; Subjunctive, 191-
p between m and s: 63, (8); 75.
                                         193. - Present: 164-169. - Pret-
pair: 52, (1), 1.
                                         erit: 173.
```

```
Personal Pronouns: 116; 120-125.
                                       Preterit:
ph: 57, φ.
Phonetic Alphabet: p. VII.
piion: 73, Py.
piucela: 42, 1; 44, 2.
plach: 80, C't.
plaire: see plaser.
plais: 28, 6.
plait: 80, C't.
plazer: 144, 4; 148, (2); 150; 160;
  162, (22); 173, (3); 187, (4).
ploia: 33, 1.
plou: 37, 1.
Pluperfect: 141.
Plural: 93.
poder: 137, (1); 148, (2); 150; 162,
  (23); 168; 181, (1); 184, (2); 184,
  (2), 1; 187; 192, 1.
polpra: 87, 1.
Popular Words: 15.
Possessives: 126-129.
                                       proa: 35, I.
Post-verbal Nouns: 96, 1.
pouts: 52, (3), 1.
pouzer: 85.
Prefix, Change of: 43.
preire: 78, 1.
                                         nouns.
prendre: 71; 87, 1; 148, (3); 161;
   162, (24); 172; 173, (1); 177, (1),
   (3); 179; 180; 180, 1; 181, (1);
   183; 183, (1); 188; 192.
preon: 43; 44, 4.
 Preposition + Article; 118, 2.
 Present: 154-169. — Double Stems,
   155-161: -c, 161; Diphthong,
   159; -nc -nh, 161; Palatal, 160-
                                          133-135.
   161; -sc-, 155-156. - Peculiar
   Forms: 162. — Personal Endings:
                                       propi: 87, r.
   164-169.
                                       Provençal: - Language: Dialects,
presseguier: 86.
                                          3-8, 10-13; Extent, p. VIII, 2-4;
```

prestre: 71, 1; 87, r. 141, (2); 171-184. — Personal Endings: 173.—Strong: 178-184. Accent in 1st pers. pl.: 179. Stem vowel change in 1st pers. sg.: 181, (1). Third pers. pl. without r: 180. Types: -i, 178, (2) and 182; reduplicative, 178, (1); -si, 178, (3) and 183; -ui, 178, (4) and 184. - Strong and Weak: 172-177. Strong stems with weak endings, 177. -Weak: 174-177. Conjugations: 1st, 174, (1) and 175, (4); 2d, 174, (2) and 175, (1); 3d, 174, (3) and 175, (3); 4th, 174, (1) and 175, (2). Ending -c: 176. preu: 65, G, 1. preveire: 78, 1. prever: 71, I. Proclitics: 19; 118, (1); 122; 123. profich: 28, 1. *pron*: 63, (5), footnote. Pronominal Adjectives: see Pro-Pronouns: 114-136. — Demonstrative: 130-132.—Indefinite: 136.— Interrogative: 133-135. — Personal: 116, 120-125. - Conjunctive: 122-123. Disjunctive: 124 -125. - Possessive: 126-129. Plural possessor: 129. Singular possessor: 127-128. - Relative: Pronunciation: 8-9.

```
- Literature: I.
puosc: 37, 2.
pus: 87, 1.
put: 47, (1); 80, Td.
putana: 95, 2.
qu: 55, W; 62, (2); 72, Kw, Nw.
qual que: 136, (10).
quan: 136, (11).
Quantity: 20-21.
quatre: 72, Tw, 1.
quec: 136, (21).
que que : 136, (20).
quesacom: 136, (22).
quet: 25, 1, (d); 40, 1.
qui: 133.
quier: 30, I.
qui que: 136, (23).
quis (Lat.): 133.
quis (from querre): 28, 3; 181, (1).
rancura: 33, 2.
randola; 46, I.
ratge: $2, (5).
re (ren, res): 82, M; 93, (2); 101,
  (1), 2.
rede: 51, 4; 80, Yd.
redebre: 70, I.
redobla: 33, I.
redon: 43.
refreitor: 85.
rege: 49, (1).
rei: 101, (2), 3.
reide: 51, 4; 80, Yd.
Relative Pronouns: 133-135.
renc; 80, Gn; 86.
renha: 80, Tn.
renlinguir: 85.
rire: 137, (2); 162, (25).
```

Sounds, 8-9; Spelling, 7 and 9.

```
Romance Languages: 14.
rs>s: Latin, 55, R; Provençal,
  65, R.
s + nasal: 65, S, I.
-s in adverbs: 82, S, 3.
saber: 65, P, 3; 137, (1), (2); 145;
  148, (2); 150; 160; 162, (26);
  165; 172; 177, (1); 184; 184,
  (4); 187; 192; 192, 1, 2.
sauma: 80, Gm.
sautz: 52, (3), 1.
saver: 65, P, I; see saber.
sazo: 87, t.
seguir: 137, (1), (2); 148, (2); 159,
  (1); 167, (2).
selcle: 69, 1.
sembrar: 68, Ml.
senes: 51, 4.
senestre: 25, I, (e).
sereisa: 23, 3.
seror: 43, I.
set: 52, (2), 1; 80, Pt.
seti; 73, Dg, footnote.
seze: 25, 1, (e); 80, Dc'.
sierf: 30, 1.
sint: 28, 2.
sobra: 33, 1.
sogre: 70, Cr.
soi agutz: 141, (1), footnote; 148, 1.
somni: 73, Mny.
son < sum: 82, M; 162, (15).
son < suum: 82, M; 126-127.
sor = sobre: 70, I.
sor = sorre: 52, (1), 1.
sosrire: 66, 1.
sosterrar: 66. I.
sostraire: 66, 1.
sotran: 73, Ny.
```

```
sozer: 49, (1).
                                           treva: 72, Bw.
  Spelling: 7, 9.
                                           troba: 33, 1; 86.
  sub: 66, 1.
                                           tronar: 86.
  Subjunctive: see Conjugation.
                                           trop: 37, I.
                                           truoill: 86.
  suefre: 33, 1; 37, 2.
  suenh: 36, 1; 37; 73, Mny.
                                           -tulus: 47, (2).
  Superlative: 106; 109.
  Supporting Vowel: 52; 164, (1);
                                          ü: 34, 38, 41. — From 9: 34. —
    165; 166.
                                             From \bar{\mathbf{u}}: 38. — Unaccented: 41;
                                             see Vowels.
                                           u < l: see l > u.
  t between dental or palatal and s:
    82, S.
                                           u: 40, (2); 55, W; 72.
  taire: see tazer.
                                           ue: 37.
  tal: 136, (25).
                                          uebre: 23, 3.
  tamanh: 136, (26).
                                           Ugo: 101, (3), 1.
  tan: 136, (27).
                                           uis: 33, 2.
  tapit: 25, 2, (e).
                                          umplir: 44, 1.
  taser: 162, (27).
                                           un; 117; 136, (29).
  tems: 63, (8); 100.
                                           Unaccented Vowels: see Vowels.
  tener: 137, (2); 148, (2); 150; 160;
                                          uo<ç: 37.
    161; 162, (28); 166; 181, (1);
                                          uó>0: 40, 1; 55, W.
    184.
                                          upa: 33, 2.
  tenir: 137, (2); see tener.
                                          -us -onem; 96, 2.
  Tense: see Conjugation.
                                          -ut in Past Participle: 148.
  teula: 68, Gl.
                                          uu>u: 55, W.
  teun; 72, Nw, I.
  tey: 65, N, 3.
                                          \mathbf{v} > \beta; 55, \mathbf{\tilde{V}}.
th: 57, θ.
                                          vair: 73, Ry, I.
. tinc: 28, (3).
                                          vaire: 51, 4.
  ton < tuum: 82, M; 126-127.
                                          vas: 42, I.
  tonleu: 33, 5.
                                          vaus: 42, I.
  torser: 49, (1); 72, Kw, 2.
                                          vecvos: 156, 2.
  tot: 65, T, 2; 136, (28).
                                          vei: 160.
  trabalh: 43.
                                          vendanka: 25, 2, (e).
                                          Verbs: see Conjugation.
  trachor: 65, D, footnote.
  traire: 148, (3); 162, (29); 172;
                                          verin: 25, 2, (e); 87, n + n.
    177, (1), (3).
                                          veus: 156, 2.
  trap: 65, β, 2.
                                          veuva: 72, Dw, 1.
  tres = tras: 23, 4; 43, 3.
                                          vezer: 145; 148, (2), (3); 150; 156,
```

2; 160; 162, (30); 170; 171, 173, (3), (4); 179; 182, (3); 182, (3), 1; 187; 192; 192, 3. vezoa: 72, Dw. I. vianda: 28, 6; 87, \beta. viats: 87, β; 108. vint: 27. Vocative: 91, (2). voig: 23, 3; 49, (1); 80, C't. volentiers: 46, 1. voler; 137, (1); 148, (2); 159, (2); 160; 162, (31). 167, 2; 177, (1); 180; 181, (1); 184, (3); 187; 192. volon: 28, 7. Vowels: - Accented: 23-39; see a, e, e, i, o, o, ü. — Greek: 22. — Latin: 20-22. - Prefixed to s+ cons.: 62, (3). — Provençal: 8-9.

- Unaccented: 40-53. Final Syl-

lable: 51-53; learned words, 53; supporting vowel, 52. Initial

Syllable: 41-44; analogy, 42; dialect, 44; false etymology, 43. Intertonic Syllable: 45-46; analogy, 46. Penult: 47-50; learned words, 50; Provençal, 48; vowel kept, 49; Vulgar Latin, 47. vuech: 23, 3; 49, (1); 80, C't. vuelc: 37, 2; 181, (1). Vulgar Latin: 14. w: 55, W; 56, W; 62, (2); 72, βw; see ų. x: 55, X. y<j: 55; 61, Y; 65, Y; 68, Yl. y < e, i∶ see e, i. y<c, g: 55; 65, G, Y; 68, C'1; 70, C'r, Gr, Yr.

Initial | z: 57, Z; 61, Y; 65, Y.